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ABSTRACT

This report is intended to provide school authorities with information useful in arranging courses of study and in providing proper conditions, to assist teachers in choosing instructional materials and in handling them according to the best teaching methods available, and to lay a foundation for articulating the movement for improved teaching of high school English. (Though published in 1917, this document has been processed into the ERIC system due to its historical importance.) (RB)

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1917, NO. 2

REORGANIZATION OF ENGLISH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

REPORT BY THE NATIONAL JOINT COMMITTEE ON ENGLISH REPRESENTING THE COMMISSION ON THE REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

COMPILED BY

JAMES FLEMING HOSIC

Chairman of the Committee

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C.

SIR: From the time of its appointment several years ago the Bureau of Education has cooperated with the National Education Association Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education and has sought its aid in working out certain problems pertaining to the reorganization of courses of study in the high schools, which the bureau was unable to do alone because of the lack of a body of experts in this subject. The Commissioner of Education and several members of the staff of the bureau have served on the commission in one capacity or another, and it has been my purpose to recommend the several parts of the report of this commission for publication as bulletins of the Bureau of Education, if, when completed, they appeared to be sufficiently thorough and comprehensive to make it desirable that they should be thus published for distribution among high-school principals and teachers and others interested in secondary education. A preliminary report of the work of all the sections of this commission was published as Bulletin, 1913, No. 41, and the report of the section on social studies was published as Bulletin, 1916, No. 28. I am transmitting herewith for publication the part of the report dealing with the reorganization of English in the secondary schools, which has been worked out by a joint committee representing the commission and the National Council of Teachers of English. The report was compiled by Mr. James Fleming Hosic, professor of English in the Chicago Normal School and a special collaborator in the Bureau of Education.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

CS 201 149

PREFACE.

This report has been several years in the making. It represents, however inadequately, a distinct educational movement in which a large group of American educators have gradually come to a clear consciousness of limitations that they believe must be removed and of new and worthy purposes that they would see realized in the actual work of the schools.

What this movement is will be seen by a perusal of the section in which is presented a brief history of the committee and its work. It should be recognized that the agitation leading to the appointment of the committee was not personal or sporadic but impersonal and persistent. It sprang from a set of conditions that had grown up in the course of time with the evolution of American society and American education, and was confined to no one section, though more violent in some regions than in others because of greater conservatism and weight of conditions. In short, the efforts to bring about reform, though they may have seemed needlessly violent at times, were due to real dissatisfaction with the existing state and a genuine and quite inevitable desire to adjust the forces of the school to the changed conditions of society surrounding it.

The new view of the school course and of the aims and ideals of the teacher is merely one of the corollaries of our democratic theory, and hence is bound to work itself out to some decisive conclusion. The high school is rapidly becoming a common school. That is what it was first planned to be, and that is what the people seem now determined to make it. From that point of view the folly of insisting that the high-school course in English shall be a college-preparatory course is evident. Nor will it answer to bring forward the shopworn plea that what best prepares for college best prepares for life. There is too much skepticism as to the value of much of present-day college work to warrant this. As a matter of fact, the college itself is passing through a period of adjustment. But more fundamental still is the fact that college-preparatory work in English never has prepared for college. College men freely confess that they make no attempt to base their courses upon what the high schools are supposed to have done, and, more significant still, boys and girls brought up in high schools free from the domination of the college-entrance ideal very frequently surpass their classmates who were carefully pointed toward the college examination. The entire doctrine of "preparation" for higher institutions is fallacious. The best preparation for anything is real effort and experience in the present.

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The crux of the whole difficulty of college entrance in English is the formal examination. Examinations have their educational uses, and are skillfully employed by good teachers everywhere as educational instruments. But when the officials of a distant college or examining board undertake to lay down specific requirements in English and to set questions upon them, the results are very likely to be unfortunate. Teachers of high-school pupils read the requirements and the sample-question sheets, and then set to work to drill their pupils in the facts likely to be called for. A flood of over-edited classics sweeps over the schools. The whole tradition of method in English is set in the direction of the mere matter of fact, the detritus thrown up by the literary stream, and as a result real literary study is driven out and vital composition practice is scarcely attempted. The fact that nobody intended to bring about such results does not minimize their effect. The harm is actually done.

The hope of improvement lies in the schools themselves. The dogma that anybody can teach English—or at least anybody who *knows the subject*—has been much shaken of late. The high school is becoming imbued with a distinctly professional spirit. High-school teachers and principals have set themselves to the working out of their own problems, which are indeed complex and difficult, and they are being very greatly aided by the scientific studies made possible by the growth of college departments of education. In the course of a few years we shall see the American high school fully established as an advanced common school or "people's college."

This report on English will aid, it is believed, in bringing this consummation to pass. The material for it has been collected in large measure by high-school workers. Several different committees have carried on extensive research in order to gather the facts upon which it is based. Since its inception a national organization of English teachers has sprung into being, and through its meetings, discussions, and investigations has made available an immense body of definite educational experience. Much of this the present report undertakes to digest and make readily accessible.

Three definite purposes the report is intended to serve, namely: (1) To provide school authorities with information useful in arranging courses of study and in providing proper conditions; (2) to assist teachers in choosing the most valuable material and in handling it according to the best methods; and (3) to lay a basis for articulating elementary school and high school and high school and college in such a way as to make possible the best types of work in each.

Course making is always more or less a matter of scissors and paste. It is exceedingly difficult to secure the information necessary to make

it anything else. At present the English course in our high schools is characterized by a monotonous and unintelligent uniformity. It is believed that the presentation of the attempts of some of the more enterprising teachers to work out courses adapted to the needs of the pupils will prove a helpful stimulus and example to many others.

The conditions surrounding the work of English teaching are susceptible of vast improvement. The large number of pupils now commonly assigned to an English teacher makes thorough teaching all but impossible, both because of the consequent lack of attention to the individual pupil and the physical exhaustion of the teacher. No teacher, though a Hercules and a pedagogical genius both in one, can be expected to do justice to 200 pupils in English. Fortunately, such conditions are unnecessary. The expense of the subject per pupil is low, and more teachers can and must be employed.

More money should be spent also on equipment. There is no sufficient reason for lavishing expense upon shops and laboratories while the library and the English classroom are neglected. The results do not justify it.

And lastly, high-school English that calls out the active powers of boys and girls will do more than can be accomplished by any system of requirements and examinations to prepare them for more advanced study. It is not the knowledge of certain facts about authors or books which proves of worth in the college classroom in literature, but the habit of thoughtful reading and the joy of study. What college teachers delight to find is not so much information as intelligence, intelligence in gathering and digesting information. If this report should succeed in accentuating and making articulate the movement for a better type of study and teaching of high-school English, it will have justified itself.

A summary of the report has been approved by the reviewing committee of the commission on the reorganization of secondary education. This approval does not commit every member of the reviewing committee individually to every statement and every implied educational doctrine. It does, however, mean essential agreement as a committee with the general recommendations. On the basis of this summary, the reviewing committee has authorized the publication of the report by the Bureau of Education as one of the reports of the commission. The report has been officially approved also by the Board of Directors of the National Council of Teachers of English.

JAMES FLEMING HOSIC,

Secretary, National Council of Teachers of English, and Chairman, National Joint Committee on the Reorganization of English in the Secondary Schools.

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REORGANIZATION OF ENGLISH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

I. THE HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF ENGLISH IN AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The high school has ceased to be mainly a preparatory school. This fact explains why there is a movement for the reorganization of the English course and indicates what the general character of the reorganization is likely to be. Agitation for reform in English is not unique. It is identical in spirit with the effort to develop a better type of course in history, mathematics, science, and foreign languages and has much in common with current demands for increased emphasis upon art, music, physical education, manual training, agriculture, and domestic science. After more than half a century of struggle, the public high school has definitely established itself as a continuation of common-school education, as a finishing school (in the good sense of that term) rather than a fitting school; and now, recognizing its freedom and its responsibility, it has set to work in earnest to adjust itself to its main task.

The early secondary schools in America were traditional. In the Latin-grammar school of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries only a few formal studies were carried on because little besides Latin and Greek was demanded by the college of that day. Broader courses were instituted in the academies at first, but these, too, became chiefly preparatory schools, and hence in them the emphasis was placed on ancient language and mathematics. Even Franklin's academy, in which he had planned to have instruction in English and other studies necessary, as he thought, to fit for real life, when finally organized followed traditional lines and offered little but the classics.[1] It was not until dissatisfaction in Harvard College with the quality of expression used by the students led that institution to require preparation in composition[2] that any sort of English study received much attention in the academies except English grammar. This was taught, moreover, like much else in the secondary schools of the time, mainly as formal intellectual discipline, not as useful knowledge or as a means of attaining a specific kind of skill.

[1] Lull, H. G. Inherited Tendencies of Secondary Instruction in the United States.
[2] Hill, A. S. Briggs, L. B. R., and Hulburt, B. S. Twenty Years of School and College English.

The early admission requirements in English at Harvard are of special interest because they established a type of preparation and examination which has persisted in some localities even to the present. The catalogue for 1865–66 announced that "Candidates will also be examined in reading aloud." In 1869–70 the requirement was for the first time called "English," and two books, Julius Cæsar and Comus, were named as alternatives for the examination. Three years later the catalogue announced that "Correct spelling, punctuation, and expression, as well as legible handwriting, are expected of all applicants for admission; and failure in any of these particulars will be taken into account in the examination." In 1873–74 the requirement was as follows:

English Composition. Each candidate will be required to write a short English composition, correct in spelling, punctuation, grammar, and expression, the subject to be taken from such words of standard authors as shall be announced from time to time. The subject for 1874 will be taken from one of the following works: Shakespeare's Tempest, Julius Cæsar, and Merchant of Venice; Goldsmith's Vicar of Wakefield; Scott's Ivanhoe, and Lay of the Last Minstrel.[1]

The example of Harvard was followed by other colleges and led, after a time, to the creation of The Commission of New England Colleges on Admission Examinations, which undertook the task of formulating from year to year the requirements in English. The custom of prescribing certain masterpieces of English literature as the basis of tests in writing was followed and became firmly established. The test in oral reading seems to have been dropped. The Harvard requirement related primarily to expression. A new element, namely, knowledge of literary masterpieces for their own sake, was introduced by Yale University in 1894, was favorably considered by the New England Commission in 1895, and quickly became general.

The college admission requirements in English did not become uniform, however, even throughout New England, and in 1893 a movement to bring about such uniformity was started by Wilson Farrand, principal of the Newark Academy in Newark, N. J. He read a paper on "English in the preparatory school" before the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, at Columbia College, in December of that year, in which he deplored the lack of uniformity in the college-entrance requirements in English. In consequence, a committee was appointed to prepare a report upon the subject. The committee indorsed, in the main, the recommendations of the Committee of Ten, whose findings had been made public a short time before, added a few of its own, and proposed a joint conference with other associa-

[1] Twenty Years of School and College English, Appendix.

tions having to do with the problem of college entrance in English. These recommendations were as follows:

1. That any examination set should be based upon the reading of certain masterpieces of English literature, not fewer in number than those at present recommended by the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations.

2. That certain of these books should be of a kind to be read by the candidate as literature; and that others—a limited number—should be carefully studied under the immediate direction of the teacher.

3. That each of the whole number of books should be representative, so far as possible, of a period, a tendency, or a type of literature; and that the whole number of works selected for any year should represent with as few gaps as possible, the course of English literature from the Elizabethan period to the present time.

4. That the candidate's proficiency in composition should be judged from his answers to the questions set, which should be so framed as to require answers of some length and to test his power of applying the principles of composition.

5. That formal grammar and exercises in the correction of incorrect English should in no case be more than a subordinate part of the examination.[1]

This resulted in the formation of the National Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English, which met at intervals of three or four years thereafter and selected lists of books for reading and study in the preparatory school, to which were appended certain aims of English study and directions concerning the examinations to be set. The lists grew longer from time to time, in response to the demands of secondary teachers for greater freedom of choice, and at the meeting of May, 1912, even the short list of books for intensive study was so extended as to allow some option. In February, 1916, an alternative "comprehensive" plan was instituted, by which all candidates taking college entrance examinations should have the option of choosing questions not requiring a knowledge of certain prescribed books.

It should be steadily borne in mind that this national conference never attempted to deal with secondary education as such. It grew out of the demand of the preparatory schools for a convenient uniformity, and had always before it the problem of insuring to the colleges a certain quantity and quality of preparation on the part of entering students. Indeed, the conference sedulously avoided the appearance of dictating the high-school course in English and did not suggest any definite organization of the subject matter which it approved. It is but just to say that the books listed were invariably worth while from the point of view of the student of English literature, though in many cases quite too mature for boys and girls in their 'teens, and that the reports of the conference, copied into most

[1] Cook, A. S. A Summary of the Proceedings of the Meetings of the Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English, 1894–1899.

of the college catalogues, were largely instrumental in establishing English as an important study in the high-school curriculum throughout the country. The principal cause of complaint was the examination, which tended to overemphasize historical and other facts and which fostered mere memory work and writing based almost entirely on literature. These ill effects were due in large measure, it is true, to the lack of definite educational standards in the secondary schools themselves and to ignorance of the principles of high-school instruction on the part of high-school teachers, and tended to disappear with the spread of professional intelligence.

The corrective might have been found in the report of the Committee of Ten had that commission and the English conference organized by it been properly constituted. Both were composed, however, largely of college professors and preparatory-school principals and teachers. It was inevitable that such a commission should fail in some measure to grasp an educational situation in which preparation for college was rapidly sinking into a subordinate place. Nevertheless, the report of the Vassar conference on English contains many wise and progressive ideas, which have been too little regarded.[1] Doubtless the activities of the college-entrance examination board tended to divert attention from some of the more fruitful and constructive of the suggestions made by the conference. The definite tests to be met were a more powerful influence than the more vague standards set up as ideals by the English conference.

The National Education Association attempted to follow up the work of the Committee of Ten by appointing a committee on college-entrance requirements in English, whose report was published in July, 1899. The point of view was still that of preparation for college, however, and hence the English course could not be considered on its merits as a part of the instruction and training which a young person should have irrespective of whether he is to enter one of the professions or not. The committee did, indeed, lay out a course of study, distributing a list of books only partly identical with that provided by the national conference through the four years of the high school, and did outline the studies which should accompany them. But the basis of organization was essentially a formal one. Narration, both in literature and in composition, was to occupy the first half of the first year; description, the second. In the following year exposition was to be mainly the subject of study, while correlation with the novel and the drama were emphasized in the third year. Finally the history of English literature and of the English language, and the writing of compositions of some length and maturity were to be taken up in the fourth year. The committee sought to

[1] See comments by Lull, op. cit., pp. 227–233.

emphasize the necessity of freedom of choice in reading, and evidently intended to stimulate the high schools to work out their own problems. The rhetorical element was, however, unduly emphasized in the outlines of literary study, while, on the other hand, the close correlation of composition with certain typical literary forms could result in nothing but excessive emphasis on composition essentially literary either in purpose or in subject matter. Like the preceding commissions, the committee on college entrance requirements made a report which tended to foster a type of English study that practically ignored oral composition and subjects of expression drawn from the pupil's own experience, and that constantly applied in the study of literary masterpieces formal rhetorical categories. A reaction against such a type of study was inevitable.

With the wonderful development of the public high school during the last two decades that reaction has come. From its beginning the high school was fighting ground. Established, like the academy, to provide a greater variety of studies than the preparatory school, it was soon itself called upon to furnish the opportunity for college preparation. Funds were hardly adequate to carry on courses both for those who were going to college and those who were not, and in the end the definite desires of the college-preparatory group triumphed. The effect was to render the English work excessively formal in character.

This was due in large part to the dogma of formal discipline, which the colleges insisted upon as the essential element in preparation long after they had partly discarded it for themselves. Studies must be hard and disagreeable and a certain amount of ground must be covered in order that the mind of youth should be steeled for the intellectual encounters to be met with in college days. This was the ideal which had justified emphasis upon the classics and mathematics, and it was insisted upon also for English;[1] and this without regard to the fact that the term English covered such diverse subjects as grammar, composition, literature, history of literature, history of language, spelling, etymology, etc.

About the year 1870 an educational movement began which resulted in the multiplication of public high schools, and which was destined ultimately to insure to the high school freedom and sympathetic assistance in adjusting itself to its varied tasks. This was the movement for the establishment of cooperative relations between the State universities and the public secondary schools. The University of Michigan arranged a system of accrediting the schools which were known to do good work and of accepting their graduates without examination. This custom soon became almost universal,

[1] Lull, H. G., op. cit.

except in the region of the older and larger endowed colleges, and has had a tremendous influence in stimulating young people to seek a higher education. While at times communities have been led to undertake high school programs too ambitious for their means, and while undoubtedly the system of inspection put into operation by the higher institutions has tended to shape high-school studies in accordance with university ideas, this has not been an unmixed evil. The universities are themselves responsive to the needs of their constituencies and have made great strides in adjusting their activities to widely varying demands, and they have not been slow to recognize the necessity of the vocational side by side with the cultural and the disciplinary in secondary-school studies. Hence they have been disposed to encourage the efforts of the high schools to adjust their courses to the newer educational ideals and purposes.

This is the spirit also of many endowed colleges and universities, and it is rapidly becoming the spirit everywhere. It seems clear that the public high schools of the United States will soon be free from any influence tending to a rigid, quantitative course of study. There is the greatest need, therefore, of sober consideration of the high-school course by those who are directly responsible for it. High-school principals and teachers, supervisors, and students of education, as a rule, seem to realize this. Indeed, the movement leading to the compilation of this report may be said to have arisen out of a desire to discharge that responsibility and secure for the youth of the land the best possible organization of instruction in English.

II. THE MOVEMENT FOR REORGANIZATION.

The national movement for a reorganization of secondary English was launched at the Boston meeting of the National Education Association in July, 1910. At no time had the uniform requirements given general satisfaction,[1] but the discontent became acute in the period between 1905 and 1910. It was voiced in many articles and addresses, and led to lively debates between the critics and the apologists of the system.[2]

The storm center was New York City, the teachers of which were under the influence of various requirements and examinations, including those of the National Conference on Uniform Requirements in English and the college-entrance examination board. In both the New York State and New York City Associations of English Teachers the situation was discussed at length at various meetings held during 1907, 1908, and 1909, and it was agreed that a determined effort must be made to bring about reform.

The meeting of the English round table of the secondary department of the National Education Association at Boston offered the opportunity to secure the support of teachers in all parts of the country, and accordingly certain representatives of the New York City Association of English Teachers attended the meeting of the round table, presented the need for action, and brought about the appointment of a committee to make protest to the National Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English and the college-entrance examination board.

This committee, appointed by Principal MacKenzie, of the Detroit Central High School, president of the secondary department of the National Education Association, was as follows: James Fleming Hosic, Chicago Teachers' College, chairman; Henry B. Dewey, State Department of Education, Olympia, Wash.; Rueben Post Halleck, Male High School, Louisville, Ky.; Benjamin A. Heydrick, High School of Commerce, New York City; Cornelia Steketee Hulst, Central High School, Grand Rapids, Mich.; Fannie W. McLean, Berkeley High School, Berkeley, Cal.; Edwin L. Miller, Central High School, Detroit, Mich.; Charles Swain Thomas, Newton High School, Newtonville, Mass. It is significant (1) that the committee represented every part of the country in proportion to the high-school

[1] See Carpenter, G. R., Baker, F. T., and Scott, F. N. The Teaching of English, pp. 287–289.

[2] See the bibliography in the *English Journal* for February, 1912, pp. 118–121.

population, and (2) that all the members were concerned with public education. This is in striking contrast to all committees that had previously made reports on the subject of high-school English.

The committee was organized in October, 1910, and at once undertook to collect information concerning the influence of the uniform requirements in English and the entrance examinations set upon them by the colleges. Early in 1911 over 3,000 copies of the following questionnaire were sent out, and eventually about 700 replies were received:

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.

ENGLISH ROUND TABLE OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL SECTION.

To principals of high schools and teachers of English in high schools:

At the meeting of the English round table of the National Education Association, in Boston July 1, 1910, it was decided to appoint a committee to lay before the college-entrance examination board the views of the high-school principals and teachers of the country in regard to the present entrance requirements in English and the examinations set upon them. The purpose of the committee is to learn from those best qualified to say whether the present system of entrance requirements and examinations in English fosters the best sort of English work in the high school and what changes, if any, should be urged upon the college-entrance examination board through its subcommittee on English and its board of review. The supreme consideration is to unite the teachers of the country in support of sound principles of secondary education, in order that boys and girls passing through high school may receive the kind of training in English best fitted to develop them and to prepare them for life.

To accomplish this purpose it is necessary to enlist the sympathetic interest of supervisors, parents, and college examiners and instructors, as well as high-school teachers. It is proposed, therefore, that every association of teachers or parents in the country likely to be able to assist in reaching a consensus and decision on the questions at issue be asked to appoint a cooperating committee, to gather evidence, direct discussion, and report conclusions to the committee of the round table, which shall compile and edit a final report. This central committee will report progress at the next annual meeting of the National Education Association and hopes to complete the work within the following year.

The central committee, in order to get this work under way in a definite fashion, makes the following suggestions:

TO COOPERATING COMMITTEES.

Each cooperating committee should secure, as soon as possible, the judgment of its constituency upon the main question: Do the college-entrance requirements in English, as at present administered, foster the best kind of English work in the high schools? If not, what changes should be made? The results of correspondence, discussion, and conference should be formulated and placed in the hands of the central committee, together with a digest of the evidence upon which each conclusion is based.

The following questions, particularly those under 1, 2, and 3, should be carefully considered:

1. THE INFLUENCE OF THE UNIFORM COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN ENGLISH UPON THE HIGH SCHOOL.

(*a*) What is the influence of these requirements upon the high-school course in English? In what field is the influence most felt?

(*b*) What is the influence of these requirements upon methods of teaching English in the high school?

(*c*) What is the influence of these requirements upon the pupil's attitude toward his English work?

(*d*) What changes, if any, would you make (1) in the high-school course in English and (2) in methods of teaching English in the high schools if the problem of preparation for college were eliminated?

(*e*) Do you offer the same courses to your college and your noncollege group? Why or why not?

(*f*) Are certain high schools affected in special ways by the entrance requirements or examinations of particular colleges? If so, specify.

2. THE HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE IN ENGLISH.

(*a*) Is the following statement of aims of the high-school course in English satisfactory? If not, how should it be modified?

"The aim of the high-school course in grammar and composition is to develop the power of the pupil to express the ideas that come to him from the whole range of his experience. The aim of the high-school course in literature is to develop in the pupil (1) a liking for good reading and (2) the power to understand and appreciate it."

(*b*) What principles should be followed (1) in the selection of reading for the high-school course in literature and (2) in distributing the reading throughout the course? Should the list be (1) prescribed, (2) advisory, or (3) open? Do the uniform requirements include too many books? Too few? Sufficient variety of type? Should the distinction between reading and study be dropped? What provision should be made for the study of the history of literature?

3. ENTRANCE TO COLLEGE.

(*a*) Would the following specifications provide a suitable test of efficiency in English upon graduation from high school and entrance to college?

(1) A test of the pupil's power of written expression by one or more compositions on subjects suggested by the personal experience or the general information of the candidate.

(2) A test of the range and quality of the reading of the pupil and of his power of literary appreciation by means of:

(a) The answering of a number of simple, suggestive questions on standard texts not previously prescribed.

(b) The explanation of two out of three or four passages of prose of poetry of ordinary difficulty, selected from books not previously prescribed.

(3) A test of the candidate's power of oral expression by reading aloud and by conversing.

(*b*) Should a high-school diploma be given to a pupil whose deficiencies in English are such as to prevent his being recommended for admission to college?

(c) Which is preferable, certification or uniform examination for entrance to college? Why? Is there a third method, better than either?

(d) How should the National Conference on College Entrance Requirements and Examinations be constituted?

4. REFERENCES.

What books or articles may be cited as expressing sound views (a) of the present situation with regard to high-school English? (b) Of the high-school course in English and of methods of teaching English in the high school? (Give full library reference in each case.)

5. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS.

What additional matter or matters do you wish to lay before the various cooperating committees throughout the country?

JAMES FLEMING HOSIC,
Chairman, Committee of the Round Table.

CHICAGO TEACHERS COLLEGE, *April 25, 1911.*

As it was not possible, because of the wide separation of the members of the committee, to compile a report for presentation to the English round table at San Francisco in July, 1911, the chairman of the committee offered a statement of the "Questions at issue,"[1] which was discussed by the members of the round table and unanimously approved as setting forth the views of the 300 teachers present from all parts of the United States. In this statement the appointment of the committee and its purposes and plans were set forth, and there followed an analysis of the problem of articulation of school and college and of various suggestions as to its solution. It was pointed out that the growth of public high schools had led to a clash between the purpose of educating the children of the many for life and life's occupations and the preparation of the few for entrance to the privately endowed colleges, with their traditional courses for general culture. The definite entrance requirements of the colleges and the examinations based upon them were felt by many to be hindering the high schools from adapting their courses to the needs of their own communities and were tending to highly formal and profitless methods of instruction. The accrediting system of the State universities was described and was declared to have its drawbacks. The higher institutions inevitably tended to influence the high-school courses to their own ends. The University of Chicago and Harvard University, it was pointed out, had just announced new and apparently liberal systems of entrance and doubtless an adjustment was possible. This could come, however, only when high-school officers and teachers set to work in earnest to solve their own problems. They must work out both courses and methods really adapted to pupils of high-school age.

[1] Proceedings of the National Education Association for 1911, p. 502.

The final report of the committee was printed in the English Journal for February, 1912.[1] It showed that the lists of books published from time to time by the national conference and the examinations set upon them by the colleges were practically determining the high-school course in English and the methods of teaching it throughout the country. Of course, the influence was more apparent in the immediate vicinity of the examining colleges, but it was felt everywhere. The tendency was to emphasize literary composition and composition based upon literature and to teach literature itself as fact and language rather than as humanistic and as art. Moreover, there was widespread dissatisfaction with many of the books selected by the conference, which consistently held to the principle that high-school reading should be directed to masterpieces significant in the development of English literature and which refused to include any but books out of copyright. Not less important was the failure to recognize the value and encourage the practice of oral expression both in composition and in literature. The English course as a whole tended to formality, scholasticism, and overmaturity, and needed to be vitalized, redirected, and definitely related to the life of the present.

Some of these views had previously found expression in a series of resolutions adopted by the New York State Association of Teachers of English in 1908, and they were embodied in an open letter published by that association on October 1, 1911. These resolutions declared that the requirement for graduation from high school and for entrance to college should consist of the following tests:

1. A test of the pupil's power of written expression by one or more compositions on subjects suggested by the personal experience or the general information of the candidate.

2. A test of the range and quality of the reading of the pupil and of his power of literary appreciation by means of:

(*a*) The answering of a number of simple and suggestive questions on standard texts not previously prescribed.

(*b*) The explanation of two out of three or four passages of prose or poetry of ordinary difficulty, selected from books not to be previously prescribed.

3. A test of the candidate's power of oral expression by reading aloud and conversing.

The open letter recited a series of objections to the current requirements, stated what the aims of high-school English work should be, and proposed a set of requirements, including the suggestion of an open list of recommended books, a choice of composition subjects drawn from a wide range of interests, demands in punctuation and other features of technique in keeping with the immaturity of the

[1] See also Proceedings of the National Education Association for 1912, p. 707 and p. 761.

pupils, and the testing of the power to read aloud and to speak from the floor.

This open letter was offered to the National Council of Teachers of English in Chicago, December 1, 1911, by two delegates from the New York State and city associations but it failed of approval, not because the kind of work suggested was objected to but because the letter assumed that the examination system for entrance to college was to continue. The council was composed of delegates from 20 States and was therefore dominated by those who refused to subscribe to the examination system in vogue in only a comparatively small section of the country. In short, the council took the stand that the high schools are not mainly preparatory schools and hence must not be made to conform to a system applicable mainly to private secondary schools fitting for college.[1]

The National Council of Teachers of English, soon after its organization, created a committee on high-school English, whose mission was to collect information as to the kinds of English work actually being done in the secondary schools of America. This committee prepared a questionnaire, addressed to principals of high schools, covering every phase of high-school English, and distributed copies of this through its representatives in the various sections of the country. Between three and four hundred answers, many of which were accompanied by printed or typewritten courses of study, copies of school papers, and special circulars or other information, were received. A summary of these answers appeared in the English Journal for November, 1913, under the title "Types of organization of high-school English." The most striking fact disclosed was that there were no distinct types. Instead there was surprising uniformity, though with notable exceptions and with a marked tendency to experimentation and to emphasis on new activities, especially in the Middle West. The prevailing mode was to distribute the college-entrance books through the four years, with no general agreement as to the locus of any,[2] and to carry on written composition in close connection with the study of these books, giving a single credit for all kinds of English work at the close of each term. A comparative table showed that while 181 books, collections, and individual pieces were named as being used for class study in the schools, a dozen or so were almost universal—no doubt because of their prominence in the college requirements.

The most important facts emphasized by this report seemed to be that the high-school course was organized, so far as it could be said

[1] Proceedings of the First Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English. English Journal, 1:1, January, 1912, p. 37.

[2] Except those prescribed for "careful study" by the National Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English. These, of course, were generally placed in the fourth year.

to be organized at all, on a formal basis. The favorite plan was to read the books in chronological order and to write themes to illustrate the "forms of discourse." The question of motive, of actual use and reality, was for the most part not suggested. There was much complaint of the excessive number of pupils assigned to the teacher, of the lack of opportunity for conference with individuals, and of the fact that local conditions must be ignored because of the influence of the college requirements.

The suggestions for improvement covered the difficulties just mentioned and added that there were too few well-trained teachers; that there was a lack of cooperation on the part of teachers of other subjects; that standards of attainment were too vague in the different years of the course; that the practical aspects of composition were neglected for the sake of reading and of composition based upon reading, and that the course in literature should therefore be separated from the course in composition; that more stress should be laid upon debating and other forms of oral expression: that better library facilities were badly needed; that more use should be made of current books and periodicals; that a good list of home reading should be provided; and that grammatical nomenclature should be made uniform. Many of the answers were vigorous and constructive; by putting together the suggestions from all quarters it was evidently possible to construct a new and sound high-school policy, with an eye first of all to the more perfect training and development of boys and girls, and with regard primarily to their present interests, powers, and capacities, and only secondarily to their occupation upon finishing school.

Meanwhile the committee on the articulation of high school and college, which had reported to the secondary department of the National Education Association in July, 1911, a new plan for the organization of high-school courses and for crediting them in college, had become the commission on the reorganization of secondary education, and the National Education Association authorized the appointment of committees to work under the direction of this commission upon the various high-school studies, the object of reference being not preparation for college but the life purpose of the pupils. The committee on college-entrance requirements in English was asked to undertake the preparation of a report on that subject, and, after being somewhat changed and enlarged, was united with the committee on types of organization of high-school English of the National Council of Teachers of English so as to constitute the national joint committee of thirty, as given on page 8 of this bulletin.

The first meeting of the committee was held in Chicago in November, 1912, at which the general purposes and plans of the committee were informally discussed. A second meeting of a similar character

occurred in Philadelphia in February of the following year, and it was decided that a preliminary report, setting forth the purpose of the committee, the aims of high-school English work, and the problems which must be worked out should be submitted at the convention of the National Education Association in Salt Lake City in July of that same year. This report was printed in advance and was discussed at a meeting of the English round table held for the purpose. It was afterwards included in a bulletin on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, edited by Clarence D. Kingsley, chairman of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, and issued by the United States Bureau of Education,[1] and was widely and favorably noticed in the public press. It was also presented before the high-school and college sections of the National Council of Teachers of English in November, 1913, and was discussed at a large number of educational gatherings in all parts of the country during that school year.

The committee was now organized into subdivisions for the purpose of working out the details of various portions of the report, and a second preliminary formulation was offered at a hearing of the commission at the annual meeting of the National Education Association at St. Paul in July, 1914. This included a definite statement of the good which it was hoped the report would accomplish and also tentative outlines of (1) attainment at the end of the sixth school year, (2) projects in oral expression, (3) projects in composition for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, (4) projects in composition for the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades, and (5) lists of reading for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades based upon definite principles of choice.

The work of compilation proceeded by correspondence, and another meeting of the general committee was held in November, 1914, at which the contents of the report were decided upon and all the larger questions involved carefully gone over. The results of this meeting were summarized at a special hearing of the commission in connection with the department of superintendence of the National Education Association at Cincinnati, in February, 1915, and were enthusiastically received by an audience of several hundred representative supervisors, principals, teachers, and professors of education from all parts of the United States. There seemed to be not the slightest doubt that the point of view adopted by the committee was that held by almost all who were conversant with the educational situation as pertaining to high schools and high-school English. A final meeting of the general committee was held in Chicago in November, 1915, at which decisions were reached upon all important questions remaining unsettled and the editing of the report placed in the hands of the

[1] Bulletin, 1913, No. 41.

chairman of the committee, with the understanding that each subcommittee should be held responsible for its particular portion of the work.

The subcommittees, with their assignments, were as follows: (1) Composition in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, Mr. Evans, chairman; Mr. Heydrick, secretary; Miss Porter, Mr. Hunting, Miss Fontaine, Mr. Hitchcock; (2) Composition in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades, Miss McKitrick, chairman; Mr. McComb, secretary; Miss Barbour, Mr. Miller, Mr. Shurter; (3) Literature in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, Mr. Congdon, chairman; Mrs. Hulst, secretary; Mr. Gaw, Miss Courtenay, Mr. Lowe; (4) Literature in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades, Miss Breck, chairman; Mr. Thomas, Mr. Lewis, Mr. Certain, Mr. Smith, Mr. Abbott; (5) Oral expression, Mr. Smith, chairman; Miss Courtenay, secretary; Mr. Shurter, Mr. Heydrick; (6) Business English, Mr. Hatfield, chairman; Mr. Heydrick, Mr. McComb; (7) Attainment at the end of the sixth grade, Mr. Reed, chairman; Miss Fontaine, secretary; Mr. Lowe, Mr. Hosic; (8) Libraries and equipment, Miss Hall, chairman; Miss Hill, Miss Wood, Miss McKitrick, Mr. Miller.

III. THE POINT OF VIEW OF THE COMMITTEE.

The newer conception of the high school, which the committee on English has borne steadily in mind, is as follows:

1. The college preparatory function of the high school is a minor one. Most of the graduates of the high school go, not into a higher institution, but into "life." Hence the course in English should be organized with reference to basic personal and social needs rather than with reference to college-entrance requirements. The school, moreover, will best prepare for either "life" or college by making its own life real and complete.

2. The chief problem of articulation is not how to connect the high school and the college but how to connect the high school with the elementary school. This can best be solved by regarding the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades as constituting the first stage of the high school. This new unit should be reorganized so as to gain in efficiency and save time by providing for individual and group interests and for instruction suited to adolescent and overage pupils.

3. The enormous increase of attendance on the high school has produced a situation requiring new treatment. The tendency is to make the high school truly democratic; that is, a school for the children of all the people. Consequently a varying social background must be assumed and a considerable range of subject matter provided.

4. This is not incompatible with the desire to preserve a reasonable uniformity of aims and a body of common culture. Skill in thinking, high ideals, right habits of conduct, healthy interests, and sensitiveness to the beautiful are attainments to be coveted for all. Much of the writing of both the present and the past is, moreover, so universal in its human appeal as to awaken a sympathetic response in all men everywhere. The essential thing is to make sure that each pupil is permitted to enjoy and profit by the typical experiences that the English course is peculiarly fitted to provide.

5. It is a mistake to regard English as merely a formal subject. The implication of such a view is that skill in the use and interpretation of symbols is the sole end sought and that this may be attained by drills upon technique quite apart from an interesting or valuable content. Only the specialist in language can be induced to concentrate his attention upon the forms of speech and writing

as objects of interest in themselves. The attempt to induce children to do so, except during the early period when language forms are novel, invariably results in stultifying indifference, mere memory of words without real significance, and an utter failure to establish right habits of speech or of interpretation. The content of both literature and composition is, first of all, the body of fact, interpretation, and imaginative conception to be expressed, and second, that small body of principles of technique the consciousness of which actually enables children and young people to improve their use of the vernacular.

6. Nor is English a subject that can be finished by dint of intense application on essentials in the early years of the high school, to be relegated thereafter to the place of an optional study. While it may be freely granted that great improvement in English instruction is possible, it must nevertheless be affirmed that the relation of language to the expanding life is so close and intimate that to drop the systematic practice of speaking, writing, and reading at any point in the school program would be like ceasing to exercise or to take food. English is unique in its relation to mental development and to the constant enlivening and reorganization of the pupil's whole life experience on ever-higher planes, with ever-widening horizon. Only so much of technique should be taught at any one time as pupils can actually use or profit by.

7. English must be regarded as social in content and social in method of acquirement. The chief function of language is communication. Hence the activities of the English classroom must provide for actual communication. The pupil must speak or write to or for somebody, with a conciously conceived purpose to inform, convince, inspire, or entertain. He must read with the confident expectation of being himself informed, persuaded, inspired, or entertained. With this view the course should be made up of expressional and interpretative experiences of the greatest possible social value to the given class, and it should be so administered as to appeal to the members of the class by reason of its social quality and social value. No one has more need to be a close student of contemporary social activities, social movements, and social needs than the teacher of English. In terms of these the artistic monuments of the past must in the end find their interpretation and their relation to the pupil's own life, and in terms of these, also, modern books and periodicals will find value and significance.

8. English as a training for efficiency should be distinguished from English as a training for the wholesome enjoyment of leisure. Much ill placing of emphasis and confusion of values have resulted from the failure on the part of course makers and teachers to realize this distinction. The careful and methodical arrangement of words

and sentences with the aim of entire clearness and accuracy, as in a guide book, is an undertaking decidedly different from the writing of a travel sketch by a man of genius. The two are unlike in purpose and unlike in method. The former almost anyone can learn to accomplish. The latter is possible only to the few, though the attempt to accomplish it has a certain value in developing appreciation on the part of all. The English course should be so arranged as to couple speaking and writing for practical purposes with reading of the same character, and speaking and writing for pleasure and inspiration with the study of the novelists, the playwrights, and the poets.

9. Such a form of organization will make possible that cooperation of all teachers in establishing good habits of thought and of expression without which they are rarely attained. The teacher of history may reasonably be excused from giving more than sympathetic support to the teacher of poetry, but he can not be excused from demanding of his pupils such observance of good usage, such thinking out of intellectual problems, such organizing of bodies of ideas, and such clothing of those ideas in appropriate language as the instruction of the English teacher has made possible. What the pupil learns in English he must be required to use in his other classes.

10. The value of extra classroom activities should be realized. The modern recitation, it is true, is not a stilted, formal affair, but nevertheless it can not well provide the entire range of social situations in which language functions; the students' club is more nearly the counterpart of the town meeting or the literary society. Particularly does the play before another class or before the school afford opportunity for exploiting powers not fully called into activity in the class.

11. Finally, the success of the English work is conditioned by certain material and personal factors, the most important of which are the number and size of classes, the library and other equipment, and the preparation of the teacher. Composition is personal as well as social. Each individual must have opportunity for practice under sympathetic guidance and criticism. Mere learning of rules never made a speaker or a writer. Even the reader of literature loses much when he is given no opportunity to compare his impressions with others or to interpret them by reading aloud. No subject is more truly a "shop or laboratory subject" than English. Hence the number of pupils assigned to each teacher of English must be reasonably limited.

12. The same principle holds true of the equipment. Textbooks alone do not provide that generous companionship with writers necessary to the making of readers and writers. High-school classes

in English need a library and a good reading room, with a generous collection of books adapted to the needs of the pupils and with a trained teacher-librarian in charge. They need also the stereopticon, the duplicator, the filing cabinet, and the picture collection.

13. The supreme essential to success in high-school English is the trained teacher—the teacher trained by the study of his subject, trained by the study of educational principles and methods, and trained by practical experience. The novice and the itinerant—often one and the same—are the chief stumbling block to progress in English as in other fields. They must give way to the professional imbued with the sympathetic spirit. Such a person will have rational standards, mature judgment, and definite methods of measuring results.

IV. THE AIMS OF THE ENGLISH COURSE.

The committee believes that a single statement of aims will prove serviceable as a guide to the English work of all schools. There should be, however, no expectation of uniformity in results, such as is implied, for example, in uniform examinations or the prescription of certain books to be read in certain grades in all schools. A course in English should make very clear to all concerned what ends are sought, the character of the activities necessary to reach those ends, and the standards and measures by which progress may be ascertained; but it should at the same time provide for choice and adaptation of material to meet special group and community interests and needs and to fit individual capacities for expression and enjoyment.

Stated broadly, it should be the purpose of every English teacher, first, to quicken the spirit and kindle the imagination of his pupils, open up to them the potential significance and beauty of life, and develop habits of weighing and judging human conduct and of turning to books for entertainment, instruction, and inspiration as the hours of leisure may permit; second, to supply the pupils with an effective tool of thought and of expression for use in their public and private life, i. e., the best command of language which, under the circumstances, can be given them.

The particular results to be sought in the English course may be more definitely outlined as follows:

I. In general, the immediate aim of high-school English is twofold:

(*a*) To give the pupils command of the art of communication in speech and in writing.

(*b*) To teach them to read thoughtfully and with appreciation, to form in them a taste for good reading, and to teach them how to find books that are worth while.

These two aims are fundamental; they must be kept in mind in planning the whole course and applied in the teaching of every year.

II. Expression in speech includes:

(*a*) Ability to answer clearly, briefly, and exactly a question on which one has the necessary information.

(*b*) Ability to collect and organize material for oral discourse on subjects of common interest.

(*c*) Ability to present with dignity and effectiveness to a class, club, or other group material already organized.

(*d*) Ability to join in an informal discussion, contributing one's share of information or opinion, without wandering from the point and without discourtesy to others.

(*e*) For those who have, or hope to develop, qualities of leadership, ability, after suitable preparation and practice, to address an audience or conduct a public meeting with proper dignity and formality, but without stiffness or embarrassment.

(*f*) Ability to read aloud in such a way as to convey to the hearers the writer's thought and spirit and to interest them in the matter presented.

NOTE.—All expression in speech demands distinct and natural articulation, correct pronunciation, the exercise of a sense for correct and idiomatic speech, and the use of an agreeable and well-managed voice. The speaker should be animated by a sincere desire to stir up some interest, idea, or feeling in his hearers.

III. Expression in writing includes:

(*a*) Ability to write a courteous letter according to the forms in general use and of the degree of formality or informality appropriate to the occasion.

(*b*) Ability to compose on the first draft a clear and readable paragraph, or series of paragraphs, on familiar subject matter, with due observance of unity and order and with some specific detail.

(*c*) Ability to analyze and present in outline form the gist of a lecture or piece of literature and to write an expansion of such an outline.

(*d*) Ability, with due time for study and preparation, to plan and work out a clear, well-ordered, and interesting report of some length upon one's special interests—literary, scientific, commercial, or what not.

(*e*) For those who have literary tastes or ambitions, ability to write a short story, or other bit of imaginative composition, with some vigor and personality of style and in proper form to be submitted for publication, and to arrange suitable stories in form for dramatic presentation.

NOTE.—All expression in writing demands correctness as to formal details, namely, a legible and firm handwriting, correct spelling, correctness in grammar and idiom, and observance of the ordinary rules for capitals and marks of punctuation; the writer should make an effort to gain an enlarged vocabulary, a concise and vigorous style, and firmness and flexibility in constructing sentences and paragraphs.

IV. Knowledge of books and power to read them thoughtfully and with appreciation includes:

(*a*) Ability to find pleasure in reading books by the better authors, both standard and contemporary, with an increasing knowledge of

such books and increasing ability to distinguish what is really good from what is trivial and weak.

(*b*) Knowledge of a few of the greatest authors, their lives, their chief works, and the reasons for their importance in their own age and in ours.

(*c*) Understanding of the leading features in structure and style of the main literary types, such as novels, dramas, essays, lyric poems.

(*d*) Skill in the following three kinds of reading and knowledge of when to use each:

(1) Cursory reading, to cover a great deal of ground, getting quickly at essentials.

(2) Careful reading, to master the book, with exact understanding of its meaning and implications.

(3) Consultation, to trace quickly and accurately a particular fact by means of indexes, guides, and reference books.

(*e*) The habit of weighing, line by line, passages of especial significance, while reading other parts of the book but once.

(*f*) The power to enter imaginatively into the thought of an author, interpreting his meaning in the light of one's own experience, and to show, perhaps by selecting passages and reading them aloud, that the book is a source of intellectual enjoyment.

NOTE.—All book work should be done with a clear understanding, on the student's part, as to what method of reading he is to use and which of the purposes mentioned above is the immediate one. To form a taste for good reading it is desirable that a considerable part of the pupil's outside reading be under direction. To this end, lists of recommended books should be provided for each grade or term. These lists should be of considerable length and variety to suit individual tastes and degrees of maturity.

V. The kinds of skill enumerated above are taught for three fundamental reasons:

(*a*) Cultural. To open to the pupil new and higher forms of pleasure.

(*b*) Vocational. To fit the student for the highest success in his chosen calling.

(*c*) Social and ethical. To present to the student noble ideals, aid in the formation of his character, and make him more efficient and actively interested in his relations with and service to others in the community and in the Nation.

NOTE.—These fundamental aims should be implicit in the teacher's attitude and in the spirit of the class work, but should not be explicitly set forth as should the immediate aim of each class exercise.

V. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE ENGLISH COURSE.

The subject matter of English consists primarily of activities, not of information. It provides a means for the development of ideals, attitudes, skill, and habits rather than for the acquisition of a knowledge of facts and principles. That is to say, English as a high-school study is to be regarded primarily as an art, not as a science, and is to be learned by practice rather than by generalization.

The activities broadly named English and formally classified as composition, grammar, literature, oral expression, etc., are really only twofold, namely, receiving impressions and giving them. In both mind and body are positive, creative, and not passive, sponge-like.

Both giving and receiving have reference, moreover, to only two types of situation, work and leisure, production and play.

In these principles may be found the basis of an organization of the course at once vital and economical. While both should be full of zest and interest, the activities mainly characterized by the spirit of work should be clearly distinguished from those characterized by the spirit of play, the game for the sake of the game. The study of expression for practical purposes should go hand in hand with the study of books of a practical character; in the same way the study of literary composition in the narrow sense of that term should accompany the study of novels, dramas, essays, and poems.

The report of the committee on English has been arranged with these principles in view. For the sake of clearness, it is true, the conventional names of the English studies have been employed. The committee recognizes, moreover, the value of systematized knowledge in the case of grammar, spelling, rhetoric, literary forms, history of literary production, and the like. But it believes that this knowledge is subsidiary; that it can actually be gained only through and in connection with genuine constructive activities, and that it should not, therefore, be made the chief basis for the organization of the course or for standards of attainment to be set up from semester to semester. The relating of items of knowledge to the pupil's daily experience is more important than the relating of these items to each other in his memory.

There is pressing need to exclude from the English course irrelevant and comparatively unimportant material. The committee has sought to accomplish this by setting tradition aside and choosing

only such specific phases of life—that is, subject matter—as experience and investigation seem to justify. In general, nothing has been admitted merely because it is thought valuable by society at large; it must also prove valuable to the pupil at the time he deals with it, and valuable for the same reason that others have found it valuable. In other words, the committee has avoided as far as possible the fallacy of postponed returns, believing that if the present is properly improved the future will take care of itself.

A word of explanation as to the treatment of the subjects of grammar, rhetoric, literary form, and literary history seems necessary. Grammar and rhetoric are regarded in this report as the theoretical side of correct and effective expression in speech and writing. Both should find their meaning throughout the course in terms of the actual compositional activities of the pupils. This implies that theoretical principles shall be formulated in large measure by the pupils themselves and that the value of them shall appear in connection with the projects upon which the pupils are engaged. In other words, exercises are not to be devised for the sake of exemplifying principles, but principles are to be seized upon because they enable greater success in communication. Needless to say, such a view narrows immensely the range of grammatical and rhetorical topics which it seems worth while to include in the course. The treatise, moreover, becomes what it should always be, a work of reference, its place being supplied by "laboratory" guides and note books.

Regarding literary forms and literary history much the same things may be said. Critical appreciation of technique in literary composition is possible to only a small degree in the high school, even in the upper years. The teacher's mastery of it should enable him to guide the study and direct the observation of the pupils so as to establish in them fruitful habits of reading. Generalizations of a critical nature should be few and modest.

Literary history, except as an elective, should be incidental and informal in the high school and should follow rather than precede the reading of the literature itself. Learned flourishing of names, dates, and facts of historical "background" is a sorry substitute for intelligent and sympathetic direction of the observation and imagination of pupils in the interpretation and enjoyment of the artistic presentation of various phases of life. Incidental information germane to the matter under consideration, blackboard outlines and summaries, individual reports, reference reading with a definite purpose—these should constitute the sum of literary history for the majority of high-school pupils. Properly used, these means will put all in the possession of the main names, titles, and connections—the multiplication table of literary history, a basis for further reading and study.

The details of the course have been arranged under seven main heads, as follows: Composition in the junior high school; literature in the junior high school; composition in the senior high school; literature in the senior high school; oral expression; business English; general reading. Oral expression and general reading overlap the others and are not intended as distinct and separate lines of activity. They are given separate treatment merely to show their continuity and to emphasize their importance. Each of the seven formulations, as well as that on the library which follows, is the work of a special subcommittee.[1]

[1] The names of the members of each subcommittee are given above. See p. 25.

VI. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON COMPOSITION IN THE SEVENTH, EIGHTH, AND NINTH GRADES.

I. POINT OF VIEW.

The point of view of the committee on composition in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades may be stated as follows:

1. Training in composition is of equal importance with the study of literature and should have an equal allowance of time. Composition work should find place in every year of the school course.

2. Subjects for compositions should be drawn chiefly from the pupil's life and experience. To base theme work mainly upon the literature studied leads pupils to think of composition as a purely academic exercise, bearing little relation to life.

3. Oral work should be conducted in intimate relation with written work, and ordinarily the best results will follow when both are taught by the same teacher.

4. Theory and practice should go hand in hand. The principles of grammar and rhetoric should be taught at the time and to the extent that they are aids to expression.

5. If examinations are given, they should be so framed as to be a test of power rather than of mere memory.

II. THE CHIEF PROBLEMS.

The general aims of oral and written composition have been set forth above and need not be repeated. In the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades appears the first opportunity for systematizing such knowledge of the principles of expression as will help the pupil consciously to increase his ability. While the practical value of grammar and rhetoric is much less than was formerly supposed, it does not follow that they should be entirely ignored. The essential parts should be selected upon the basis of tested experience and should be taught in connection with expression in situations as real as may be.

The topics in grammar and rhetoric suggested for the several grades have been chosen in the light of experience and investigation and not because of mere custom or the desire for logical completeness. The study of these topics will be most fruitful if they are regarded as standing for specific habits to be formed; for results to be tested ultimately as practice rather than as theory. It is not supposed that precisely these topics in precisely this order will be handled everywhere, nor that the emphasis upon each of them will

be everywhere the same. Definite progress in the several abilities represented should, however, be planned for in every school.

Chief among the abilities to be cultivated may be enumerated the following:

1. Accuracy of observation and vividness of imagination.
2. Clear and logical thinking.
3. A sense for order and completeness.
4. Adaptation of subject matter to a particular audience.
5. The sentence sense.
6. The accurate use of an adequate vocabulary.
7. Observance of standard usage in matters of external form.

The chief problem in elementary composition is to direct pupils in the choice of subjects of real value and interest and the defining toward each of a particular point of view. This is peculiarly difficult because of the wide range of individual differences in the pupils of the junior high school. For this reason suggestions as to possible themes have been made somewhat liberally. Teachers should take ample time in assigning topics and in stimulating each pupil to think his topic over carefully and perhaps make notes upon it.

The reaction against English grammar arose from the knowledge that the formal work in the subject that was being done was of small practical value. A further influence resulted from investigations tending to show that grammar provides little mental discipline of a general character. The movement in favor of simplifying the school course and concentrating on essentials did the rest. There is need at the present time of careful discrimination, lest the pendulum be allowed to swing too far.

A sane attitude toward the teaching of grammar would seem to be to find out what parts and aspects of the subject have actual value to children in enabling them to improve their speaking, writing, and reading, to teach these parts according to modern scientific methods, and to ignore any and all portions of the conventional school grammar that fall outside these categories. In general, the grammar worth teaching is the grammar of use—function in the sentence—and the grammar to be passed over is the grammar of classification—pigeonholing by definition. The distinction is similar to the contrast of modern biology with the earlier science of families, species, etc. Language, it is well known, is learned mainly by imitation, largely unconscious, and children constantly use in their speech hundreds of expressions, many of them highly idiomatic, which only the linguistic scholar, familiar with the history of the language, can explain. Children should be set to examining only those grammatical forms and constructions whose use they can plainly see, and they should pursue such examination with the conscious purpose of learning how to make better sentences. Any other aim is mere pedantry. If it be con-

tended that English grammar should be taught for the sake of the study of foreign language, the answer is that the policy just defined will provide all the foundation that foreign-language teachers have a right to demand and much more than they will actually get through highly formal and technical studies. The topics in grammar included in this report have been carefully sifted and will be found to accord with recent investigations.

Punctuation, so far as it obeys the rules of grammar, should be taught as a part of the study of the grammatical structure of the sentence. The outline of topics in grammar provides automatically for certain topics in punctuation. Matters of punctuation that are purely or primarily rhetorical should be sparingly touched upon in the junior high school for the reason that the pupils are not yet capable of fine distinctions and may easily form the habit of over-punctuating, which is worse than not punctuating at all. Let the pupils realize that marks of punctuation are intended to help the reader's eyes, to prevent his running expressions together that should be noticed separately, and you have laid the foundation for an intelligent use of them. The written work of the pupils will provide the matter for practice.

Regular work in spelling is necessary in the junior high school. Drill should be centered upon the words that investigation shows are frequently misspelled by the pupils of these years. The lists should be made up of the class list, gathered by the teacher from the written work, and the grade list, suggested by the work of Ayres and others.[1] Classes in the commercial group will require a special and more extensive drill than other classes because of the test to which they are likely soon to be put. Subject spelling should be carried on in history and other classes so as to prevent the misspelling of proper nouns and technical terms. In addition to all this each pupil should keep in a notebook lists of the words with which he had special difficulty and he should be required to master them.

Much of the recitation in spelling should be devoted to presenting the new words. Not more than three or four distinctly new and different words should be taken up in a single class period. These should be spoken, written, divided into syllables, used in context, and compared with similar and dissimilar words as to form, meaning, and use. Special attention should be called to the part of each word which is likely to be misspelled. The word should be reviewed several times at lengthening intervals—one day, two days, etc. By dint of such treatment pupils may be taught to spell correctly all the words they wish to use and should be required to do it. The study of word structure and derivation, valuable in other ways, will support the work in spelling and should be systematically carried on.

[1] See spelling in the bibliography.

III. WORK BY GRADES.

GRADE VII.

A. Aims:

1. To give broader interests and better knowledge of environment.
2. To increase the pupil's powers of observation, organization, and expression.
3. To further develop the sentence sense.
4. To enlarge the vocabulary.
5. To teach the conventional form of the business letter and of the social letter.
6. To eliminate errors in the spelling of common words.
7. To give a knowledge of certain elementary principles of grammar.

B. Material:

1. Oral and written themes on topics, such as:
   (*a*) Stories of vacations, recreations, and outings. In these, set before the pupils the aim to interest their classmates. When the themes are read aloud, ask if any uninteresting and unnecessary details are included. This will curb the common practice of beginning with: "Got up and ate my breakfast." etc.
   (*b*) Descriptions of scenes or objects. The best subject is one that is familiar to the writer, but not to the rest of the class; the test of success, has he given the class a clear picture or impression.
   (*c*) Description of things that the pupil has made, or directions for doing things, e. g., "How to mend a bicycle tire," "How to make fudge." The test questions are: Is it clear? Is any essential point omitted?
   (*d*) Details of work done in other departments of the school, or of work outside of school hours, or in vacations. Such subjects as "How I earned my first money" are suggestive.
   (*e*) Frequent practice in letter writing. The form of the business letter should be taught. In teaching the social letter it has been found an incentive to have the pupils correspond with those of a similar grade in another city. The first letter is planned as a class exercise, the form, the stationery, the superscription all being carefully considered. Later letters may be written with little supervision. The desire of the pupil to do well will be an incentive for careful work, and the practice in composition may be quite as valuable as if done under the teacher's eye. Pupils receiving particularly good letters may give them to the teacher to read to the class, and report the teacher's comment to the writer.
   (*f*) Reports, chiefly oral, upon books read outside of class, the aim of the one giving the report being to interest other pupils in the book. For this purpose, it is best not to allow the whole story to be told.
   (*g*) The continuation orally of a narrative half read or told by the teacher, the pupil being left to invent the rest of the story.
   (*h*) Themes on topics suggested by incidents or situations in the books studied. These should not be mere reproductions.
2. The subject of grammar, while distinctly less important than composition, should not be neglected. The topics outlined below may be taught either with or without a textbook. If without, notebooks should be required. As fast as learned, the principles should be ap-

plied in the correction of written work, and pupils held strictly responsible for observing them. It is assumed that some knowledge of simple-sentence structure has been given in the sixth grade. The following should be taught in the seventh grade:

(*a*) The sentence as made up of subject and predicate—with or without modifiers—connectives, direct object, predicate noun or predicate adjective.

(*b*) The sentence as declarative, interrogative, or imperative.

(*c*) The subject as a word, a phrase, or a clause (the phrase being a group element not containing a subject and a predicate, the clause containing both).

(*d*) The subject as simple or modified; single or compound.

(*e*) The predicate verb as one word or more than one; modified or unmodified; complete or incomplete; single or compound.

(*f*) The parts of speech recognized by chief function of each; nouns as common and proper; inflection of nouns and personal pronouns; the idea of tense.

NOTE.—Verbs are not to be classified or conjugated. Verbals are to be considered nouns or adjective or adverbs, as the case may be; adjectives and adverbs are not to be classified or compared. In correcting errors in grammar in written work insist upon the application of such principles as are known; otherwise merely supply the correct form.

3. Spelling of words used.
4. Necessary punctuation.

C. Method.

Certain details of method have been explained in connection with the projects listed under B. To these may be added the following:

1. The general principle to be kept in mind is that of unity of aim and variety in exercises tending to accomplish this aim. The objects of the course as stated under A should be kept constantly in mind.
2. Motives for composition work should be sought in the life of the school and of the community. A letter written to a pupil who is kept at home by sickness, and who wants to know what is going on at school; an address in favor of a candidate for a school office; a debate on a question of local interest which is being discussed in the newspaper—such topics help to vitalize the work. (See the English Journal, Sept., 1914, "Social Motives in Composition," by E. H. K. McComb.)
3. Oral discussion and the framing of a brief outline should usually precede the writing of themes. Criticism should be constructive and should point out merits as well as faults. In pupil criticism it is particularly necessary to require this.
4. Composition work should be socialized. The pupil should write with a definite audience in mind, and as far as possible, his work should be presented to the class. Class criticism should in a large measure take the place of teacher criticism. If the purpose in writing is made clear in the assignment, and if the general aims are kept before the members of the class, they can criticize a theme very successfully, and the reaction upon the writer is more marked than when the criticism comes from the teacher.
5. Blackboard work should be a prominent feature. These exercises should be brief enough to allow many to be written and criticized within the recitation period. The use of colored chalk to indicate mistakes is effective.

6. In oral and written work keep before the pupils the conception of the sentence as a unit. Combat the common practice of making an oral composition a series of statements linked with "ands."
7. So long as bad spelling is considered a mark of illiteracy, it is the duty of the school to make a determined effort to overcome it. The study of a spelling book is open to many objections. To send a pupil to the dictionary when he makes a mistake merely shows him how the word is spelled; it does *not* teach him to spell it. His mistakes are due to the fact that he has a blurred or a wrong mental image of the word. To correct this it is necessary to make the right image familiar. When a pupil misspells a word, he shoud be required to pronounce it and to write it slowly and carefully. Further, the word should be copied into a note book, which the teacher should inspect from time to time, testing the pupil upon his list.
8. As an aid to increasing the vocabulary, the dictionary should be frequently used. This may be supplemented by the study of word lists selected by the teacher from the books studied.
9. Short prose selections should be read and reread aloud until they are practically memorized. Skill in expression and facility in the use of words may thus be cultivated effectively.

GRADE VIII.

A. Aims:

In general the same as before. Try also

1. To secure greater flexibility and variety of sentence structure.
2. To teach the general principles of paragraphing.

B. Material.

1. Themes, based largely upon personal experience and observation. See topics under Grade VII B, to which may be added:
   (*a*) Simple work in explanation of local and civic matters. This may take the form of written answers to questions such as, How are our streets repaired? Who fixes our tax rate, and for what are the proceeds spent? Of what use are our parks, and who has charge of them? How are policemen selected and appointed?
   (*b*) Descriptive themes dealing with imaginary journeys. Each pupil plans a trip to a foreign country. With an atlas he makes out his itinerary. In books of travel or such volumes as the Stoddard Lectures he reads of the principal cities and what is to be seen, and week by week writes successive chapters of his journey, illustrating his work with pictures clipped from railway and steamship folders or old magazines.
   (*c*) Themes on characters, in life or in books, whom the pupil admires. This leads naturally to themes on what pupils would like to do or to be; or this may be brought in as the concluding paragraph of an autobiography.
   (*d*) Descriptions of interesting work in other classes, especially in the departments of manual training, household arts, and science.
   (*e*) Imaginary conversation between characters in books. This may lead to dramatizing scenes or chapters, and to acting them before the class or school.

(*f*) Simple exercises in argument, the topics usually growing out of school life, the aim being to teach the pupils to keep to the question, and to treat their opponents courteously.

(*g*) Much drill in practical exposition, pupils telling how to do things, how to find things, how to go to various places, how various contrivances work. Much of this should be oral, or at least read before the class, and tested by the question, Has the writer made it clear to one who did not know?

(*h*) Accounts of visits to points of interest, trips through a factory, visits to museums, etc. If this is a class exercise it should be preceded by a talk telling the pupils what they are to observe particularly. Sometimes the teacher may announce that the best composition on this topic will be published in the school paper.

2. The following topics in grammar should be taught:

(*a*) The sentence as simple, complex, or compound; principal and subordinate clauses; connectives of subordinate clauses; types of conjunctions connecting independent clauses in compound sentences; elliptical sentences.

(*b*) The parts of speech; classes, forms, and uses of pronouns; the idea of person, number, and voice of verbs developed (paradigms of indicative mood built up by way of illustration); subordinating and coordinating conjunctions; interjections.

C. Method.

The principles laid down under Grade VII, C., especially numbers 1 to 5, apply equally to this grade. To these may be added:

1. To secure variety and flexibility in sentence structure there should be abundant drill in sentence manipulation. This, as experience shows, is not only effective but interesting, since it introduces an element of challenge or contest. This exercise may have various forms, such as:

(*a*) Combining a number of brief statements into a single sentence.

(*b*) Changing compound sentences into simple or complex ones.

(*c*) Reshaping awkward sentences, especially such as contain unnecessary repetitions.

(*d*) Punctuating many sentences, or repunctuating faulty sentences. This is effective in showing the relationship of part to part and supplements the grammar study, giving it practical application.

2. As the pupil is now beginning to write longer themes, it becomes important to emphasize somewhat the paragraph as a unit of discourse. This may be done in various ways, as:

(*a*) Analyzing parts of the books and magazines read, to show that good writers observe the principle of paragraph unity.

(*b*) Planning themes in class and requiring that each main topic be developed as a paragraph.

(*c*) Requiring pupils occasionally to exchange themes and test paragraph unity by trying to write the topic of each paragraph in the other's theme.

(*d*) Assigning topic sentences and requiring pupils to develop them into paragraphs.

3. The study of spelling should be continued as outlined in Grade VII.

4. Necessary punctuation should be taught.

5. In the study of grammar it will facilitate the pupil's work in taking up a foreign language to emphasize nomenclature common to English and the language studied.[1]

GRADE IX.

A. Aims:

1. To arouse an intelligent interest in the structure of the whole composition and the coherence of its parts.
2. To broaden the pupil's knowledge of grammar, with emphasis upon the forms of the verb.
3. To make the misspelling of common words an uncommon occurrence.

B. Material:

1. Themes of various types, some of them continuing the work explained in Grade VIII. Other projects are:
   (*a*) Themes dealing with various occupations. Each pupil chooses a calling about which he can obtain first-hand information. In class a general outline is made, covering such points as: How to enter this occupation; the work done by those engaged in it; what qualities are necessary for success; advantages and disadvantages of this calling. If a number of these themes are read before the class it will start the pupils to thinking vocationally.[2]
   (*b*) In descriptive writing occasionally select subjects that allow of appeal to several senses, and then judge the themes by the fullness of the sense appeal. For example, the contents of a lunch basket may be described in such a way as to make the reader see, feel, and perhaps smell each article, until he fairly grows hungry.
   (*c*) An incident in a book may be rewritten as if it were an actual occurrence which the pupil is to report for a newspaper, giving the article suitable headlines.
   (*d*) Letters may be supposed to pass between characters in books. For this it is best to select books with which the class is familiar so that the pupils can judge how well the writer has caught the spirit of the character.
   (*e*) Reports, chiefly oral, on current events, based upon newspaper reading. This affords an opportunity of teaching pupils to discriminate between important and unimportant news. Good cartoons may also be brought into class and made the subject of discussion.
2. The grammar work for this grade is as follows:
   (*a*) The sentence: Word order; agreement; variations by condensation of clauses or expansion of verbals and of phrases; essential and nonessential clauses.
   (*b*) The parts of speech: Various uses of nouns; substitutes for nouns; modes of the verb (indicative, imperative, and subjunctive); verb phrases; parts of troublesome verbs; building paradigms; uses of infinitives and participles; words used now as one part of speech, now as another; expletives.

[1] See the report of the National Joint Committee on Uniform Grammatical Nomenclature, published by the N. E. A., Ann Arbor, Mich.

[2] See "Vocational and Moral Guidance" by Jesse B. Davis.

C. Method.

Most of the points given under Grades VII and VIII apply here as well. To these may be added:

1. Certain elementary principles of rhetoric, such as sentence and paragraph unity, which have been taught previously, should be applied rigidly in criticism. In addition the planning of a longer composition should be taught both by the analysis of good examples and by practice in making outlines. The general principle of coherence should be taught, as applying to the sentence within a paragraph and to the paragraphs that make up the whole composition.

2. Work in spelling, as explained in Grade VII, should be so emphasized as to make pupils feel that it is absolutely inexcusable to misspell the words they habitually use.

VII. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON LITERATURE IN THE SEVENTH, EIGHTH, AND NINTH GRADES (JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL).

The following report on literature in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades includes (1) a statement of the purposes of teaching literature in these grades; (2) a statement of the principles governing the selection of this literature; (3) a discussion of the methods to be employed in its presentation; and (4) a class reading list and an individual, or home, reading list for each grade mentioned.

I. PURPOSES.

General purpose.—The essential object of the literature work of the seventh, eighth, and ninth years is so to appeal to the developing sensibilities of early adolescence as to lead to eager and appreciative reading of books of as high an order as is possible for the given individual, to the end of both present and future development of his character and the formation of the habit of turning to good books for companionship in hours of leisure. To this general purpose, stated somewhat more in detail in the first three paragraphs below, all other purposes must be secondary.

Special purposes.—1. To cultivate high ideals of life and conduct through literature of power, in so far as such appeal is adapted to the understanding and sympathies of pupils of these grades.

2. To stimulate the imaginative and emotional faculties of the pupil to a degree comparable to the development of his reasoning powers in his other school work.

3. To broaden the mental experience by supplying a sympathetic acquaintance with scences in various geographical sections and with historical periods of the world. This has two distinct values: (1) Psychologically it forms centers of apperception about which fresh facts will tend to accumulate in the future, the process being vitalized by the human interest attaching to the central historical or fictional figures; and (2) by the presentation of persons acting in accordance with the demands of conditions new to the pupil an attack is made early in the educative process upon the tendency toward a merely local or provincial outlook upon life.

4. To give the pupil early a delightful first-hand acquaintance with the simpler writings of some authors of high rank to the end

that he may later pass easily and naturally to their more complex works.

5. To present such a variety of types of literary production as is consonant with the pupil's mental grasp in the given grade and with the accomplishment of the other purposes herein indicated.

6. To improve the pupil's powers of self-expression by energizing his thought, by presenting worthy models of construction, and by instilling a feeling for style in the narrow sense through direct contact with simple masterpieces rather than through specific study of technique.

7. To fix in memory a considerable body of suitable poetry and prose, which shall serve throughout life as a source of joy, a criterion for the evaluation of other writings, and a stimulus to further reading.

8. To train pupils in discriminating among the current publications and dramatic productions, choosing the best.

II. PRINCIPLES OF CHOICE.

1. Value of content (power of broadening the mental vision and stimulating thought); ethical soundness, human sympathy, optimism; literary qualities.

2. Power to grip the interest of pupils of the given grade. They must enjoy, not merely tolerate.

3. Subordination of excellence of style, when necessary, to value of content and power to arouse interest.

4. Recognition of the fact that the reading interests of seventh, eighth, and ninth grade pupils are almost entirely narrative, but that there should be an effort to secure such diversity as is possible in time and place of action, with due attention to heroic subjects, and to the best from foreign literatures and the past.

5. A variety of choice such that no school shall be required, for the sake of uniformity, to refrain from doing its best in both organization and extent of course.

6. The need of organizing the reading, especially that to be done in class, so that the selections will constitute something of a progression or course. It must, however, be recognized in the literature of grades seven, eight, and nine that there are but two fundamental principles of arrangement or development; namely, variety within clearly marked limits and gradual growth in breadth of content and depth of appeal.

III. METHOD.

Both the pupil's reading in grades seven to nine and the teacher's guidance of that reading naturally divide into two distinct phases. A few tried pieces of high order may well be read in class sym-

pathetically, for content and beauty, and at the same time simpler works should be read by the pupils individually and for the most part at home. The classroom work will stimulate and help to control the outside reading and this in turn tend to develop the desired habit of reading freely and wisely. There will be suggested methods appropriate to each of these forms of the teacher's work.

CLASSROOM METHOD.

1. Fundamental is the comprehension of the meaning of the work as a whole, and of the contribution of its various parts to that meaning. In narrative this involves an understanding of the cause-and-effect relationship between the various incidents and between character and action, a study that often culminates in the perception of some pervading principle governing human life. As to order of procedure, in the case of many shorter forms it is advisable to begin with an oral reading that carefully preserves the spirit of the work and to follow this reading with a discussion of the more important interpretative details. In the case of the longer works it is usually necessary to examine first the successive sections and then by a rapid review to unify these into a compact whole. It is important to avoid the two extremes (1) of merely reading the work without any adequate comprehension of its message, and (2) of entering into labored analysis. What constitutes an effective middle between these extremes must be settled independently by each teacher for each work on the basis of (1) the difficulty of the writing and (2) the needs and mood of the class.

2. Stimulation of the imaginative and emotional faculties of the pupil is mainly dependent upon inducing him to identify himself in thought with the writer and (in narrative) with the characters. He must be led for the time to see and to feel as did the writer, or to hope or fear, to despair or triumph, as do the characters in the play or story. To this end more than to any other must the teacher's interpretative powers be bent, for if he fails in this, the work can not rise above the mediocre. As a means of securing this attitude of mind, the pupil may, for instance, be asked to visualize a scene orally without glancing at the text, the test in such a case being consistency with the author's conception, and not mere repetition of details held in memory from the reading; or he may be asked to talk or write upon a situation parallel with that in the text, but drawn from his own experience, real or imagined; or he may take part in arranging and enacting simple dramatizations.

3. The teacher should be equipped with various types of additional information for various types of writings. Such are: Additional features of background, human and otherwise, for foreign scenes;

details concerning the life and conceptions of the peoples who produced such primitive forms of literature as "The Odyssey" or "The Song of Roland"; and anecdotes illustrating the personalities of the authors. Such detailed methods, however, as are involved in the presentation of a play of the time of Shakespeare have in general no place in the work of these grades.

4. In the reading of poetry special attention should be paid to the cultivation of a keen ear for the lilt of the verse. In the earlier part of this three-year course the chief reliance must be upon the pupil's sense of rhythm as stimulated by contact with a teacher skilled in oral interpretation, but toward the end of the three years he should perhaps be ready for a knowledge of the use of the four principal feet as obtained by the analysis of very simple and regular lines of verse and by making verses of his own.

5. Some of the passages read should be committed to memory, the passages being assigned by the teacher, or selected by the class as a whole, or left to the choice of the individual members of the class. The method of memorizing is important. If pupils will read aloud the passages selected, once or twice a day thoughtfully for a couple of weeks, they will find they have unconsciously mastered them. Passages so memorized will be remembered much longer than those learned in shorter sections day by day. Several repetitions of such passages at gradually lengthening intervals will be necessary to insure their permanent retention. Memorizing should follow, not precede, a clear perception of the progress of the thought of the selection.

6. Grammatical analysis and word study are valuable aids in determining the meaning of a given passage, and should be used whenever necessary for that purpose. Their introduction into the literature hour for any purpose other than this, however, is to be deplored. Other uses, essential and vital, they have; but these should be given another place in the English course.

MEANS OF ENCOURAGING AND TESTING HOME READING.

Home reading should be encouraged and guided by every means the teacher can devise. Each teacher should make from the books and magazines that are or can be made available a list for each grade sufficiently long and varied to permit the pupils of the class to choose books and magazines within their individual taste and grasp. The reading should be classified into such main groups as long stories, short stories, biography, travel, popular science, current events, poetry, and drama. While large individual choice should be allowed, each pupil should be required to delve into several fields like the above.

An effective means of stimulating interest and of helping pupils to choose their reading intelligently consists in having each pupil give to the class a short oral account of some book or article that he has found particularly interesting. Such an exercise has the added advantage of a real motive and calls for skill in the case of a story in that the pupil must avoid telling so much as to defeat his purpose, namely, that of arousing interest in the story. Allowing different members of the class who are unfamiliar with the story to finish it as they think it ought to end not only leads them to want to read for themselves to discover the real ending, but also affords excellent practice in imaginative narrative. Instead of giving the plot of a story the pupil may select a striking or amusing episode, a vivid description, an interesting character, or other impressions or opinions.

The cooperation of the school or town librarian is invaluable in encouraging and guiding reading. The list of books suitable for the grade my be posted in the library rather than in the classroom, as a bait in luring the pupils to the library, where the librarian may accomplish wonders.

No list should be regarded as complete. The pupils should be encouraged to discuss with the teacher any reading outside of the list. Even the teacher's occasional borrowing of a book recommended by a pupil establishes friendly confidence between teacher and pupil and encourages others to read in order that they too may lend.

Devices such as these, aside from encouraging home reading, enable the teacher to know the reading habit of the pupil and incidentally to test the amount of reading done. Monthly statements of reading and short personal conferences have their place, but the former should not be obtrusive.

When all is said and done, however, the teacher who knows his books and his pupils, who is constantly alert to suggest enthusiastically the book or article that will interest the individual pupil, never fails of success in this important part of his work.

IV. SUGGESTIVE LISTS OF BOOKS FOR STUDY AND GENERAL READING.

GRADE VII.

A. Titles from which selection for class work may be made.

1. Longfellow: The Skeleton in Armor, The Wreck of the Hesperus, Excelsior, The Arsenal at Springfield, The Bridge, The Day is Done, Walther von der Vogelweid, The Old Clock on the Stairs, The Arrow and the Song, The Building of the Ship, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, Pegasus in Pound, The Phantom Ship, The Emperor's Bird's Nest, Santa Filomena, Daybreak, Sandalphon, Maiden and Weathercock, The Three Kings, The Leap of Roushan Beg.

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A. Titles from which selection for class work may be made—Continued.

2. Whittier: The Vaudois Teacher, Cassandra Southwick, The Shoemaker, The Fishermen, The Huskers, The Angels of Buena Vista, The Lakeside, The Poor Voter on Election Day, Maud Muller, The Barefoot Boy, Skipper Ireson's Ride, The Pipes at Lucknow, Telling the Bees, The Cable Hymn, My Playmate, Barbara Frietchie, Abraham Davenport, The Three Bells, In School Days, Marguerite, The Trailing Arbutus, Our Autocrat, The Poet and the Children.
3. Longfellow: Miles Standish, Evangeline.
4. Arabian Nights (expurgated selections).
5. The Seven Champions of Christendom (an Elizabethan prose romance of chivalry and necromancy).
6. Hawthorne: The Great Stone Face.
7. Irving: Rip Van Winkle, The Legend of Sleepy Hollow.
8. Lamb: Tales from Shakespeare.
9. Kipling: The Jungle Books (the Mowgli Stories especially).
10. Stevenson: Treasure Island.
11. Stevens and Allen: Stories of King Arthur.
13. Myths, classic and northern. For this reading the following texts are suggested: Baldwin, J., Hero Tales Told in School, The Golden Fleece, The Story of Siegfreid, The Story of Roland, Stories of the King; Baker, E. K., Stories of Old Greece and Rome, Stories from the Old Norse Myths; Hutchinson, W. M. L., The Golden Porch (A Book of Greek Fairy Tales), The Sunset of the Heroes (Last Adventures of the Takers of Troy), Orpheus with His Lute (Stories of the World's Springtime); Mable, H. W., Norse Stories, Retold from the Eddas.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made.

1. Alcott: Little Women; Little Men; Jo's Boys; Eight Cousins; Rose in Bloom.
2. Brown: Rab and His Friends.
3. Barrie: Peter and Wendy.
4. Dix: Marylips.
5. Dodge: Hans Brinker.
6. Ewing: Jan of the Wind-Mill; Flat Iron for a Farthing.
7. Field, E.: Christmas Tales and Christmas Verse.
8. Griswold: Deering of Deal.
9. Goss: A Life of Grant for Boys.
10. Hasbrouck: The Boy's Parkman.
11. Hawthorne: Grandfather's Chair.
12. Herbertson: Heroic Legends.
13. Hulst: Indian Sketches.
14. Jordan: The Story of Matka, a Tale of the Mist Islands.
15. Lang: The Story of Joan of Arc.
16. Lee, Mary C.: A Quaker Girl of Nantucket.
17. Lucas: Slow Coach.
18. Moore, N. H.: Deeds of Daring Done by Girls.
19. Nicolay: Boy's Life of Abraham Lincoln.
20. Ollivant: Bob, Son of Battle.
21. Pyle: Otto of the Silver Hand; the Merry Adventures of Robin Hood.
22. Rance: The Nurnberg Stove.
23. Richards: Captain January.
24. Seawell: A Virginia Cavalier.
25. Southey: Life of Lord Nelson.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made—Continued.

26. Spyri: Heydi; Heimatlos.
27. Swift: Gulliver's Travels (expurgated).
28. Tappan: In the Days of Queen Victoria.
29. Thompson-Seton. Biography of a Grizzly; The Trail of the Sandhill Stag; Two Little Savages.
30. Trowbridge: Cudjo's Cave.
31. Wiggin: Bird's Christmas Carol; Polly Oliver's Problem.
32. Wright: The Gray Lady and the Birds.

GRADE VIII.

A. Titles from which selection for class work may be made.

1. An anthology of American poems, compiled especially for eighth-year use and including numbers such as Bryant's To a Water Fowl, Lowell's Yussouf, Lanier's Song of the Chattahoochee, and some of the best of Riley and Field, as well as material from Longfellow, Holmes, and Whittier of the type above quoted.
2. O. W. Holmes: Old Ironsides, The Last Leaf, My Aunt, The Height of the Ridiculous, Lexington, The Steamboat, The Voiceless, The Boys, All Here, Our Banker, The Chambered Nautilus, Album Verses (When Eve Has Led Her Lord Away), Contentment, The Deacon's Masterpiece, Aunt Tabitha, An Old-Year Song, Dorothy Q, A Ballad of the Boston Tea Party, Union and Liberty, Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill, How the Old Horse Won the Bet, The First Fan, My Aviary, The Broomstick Train.
3. Cooper: The Last of the Mohicans.
4. Scott: Lay of the Last Minstrel.
5. Macaulay: Horatius.
6. Warner: A-Hunting of the Deer, How I Killed a Bear, Camping Out (from In the Wilderness).
7. Hale: The Man Without a Country.
8. Dickens: Christmas Carol; Cricket on the Hearth.
9. Van Dyke: The Story of the Other Wise Man.
10. Longfellow: Selections from Tales of a Wayside Inn (King Robert of Sicily, Parts of the Saga of King Olaf, Ballad of Carmilhan, Legend Beautiful, Charlemagne, The Mother's Ghost, Falcon of Ser Federigo, Bell of Atri, etc.).
11. Sweetser, K. D.: Ten Boys and Girls from Dickens; Boys and Girls from Thackeray.
12. Mims: The Van Dyke Book.
13. Kipling: Captains Courageous.
14. Tennyson: Gareth and Lynette.
15. Stevenson: Kidnapped.
16. Whittier: Snow-Bound.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made.

1. Bullen: The Cruise of the Cachalot.
2. Burnett: The Secret Garden.
3. Cooper: The Deerslayer; The Pilot.
4. Clemens: Prince and Pauper.
5. David: Stories for Boys.
6. De Amicis: An Italian School Boy's Journal.
7. Dix: Soldier Regdale.
8. Doubleday: Stories of Invention.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made—Continued.

9. Doyle: Micah Clarke.
10. Duncan: Adventures of Billy Topsail.
11. Eastman: An Indian Boyhood.
12. Eggleston: The Hoosier Schoolmaster.
13. Fouque: Undine.
14. Hale, E. E.: A New England Boyhood.
15. Hulsey: The Old New York Frontier.
16. Harris: Nights with Uncle Remus.
17. King, Capt. Chas.: Cadet Days, a story of West Point.
18. London: The Call of the Wild.
19. Lang: The Book of Romance.
20. Laurie, Andre: School Days in Italy; School Days in France (translated by Kendall).
21. Liliencrantz: The Thrall of Lief the Lucky.
22. Madden: Emmy Lou.
23. Montgomery: Anne of Green Gables; Anne of Avonlea.
24. Morris: The Sundering Flood.
25. Lincoln, J. G.: A Pretty Tory.
26. Parkman: Montcalm and Wolfe.
27. Pyle, Howard: The Story of King Arthur and his Knights; The Story of the Champion of the Round Table; The Story of Sir Launcelot and His Companions.
28. Rice: Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch.
29. Scott: Rob Roy.
30. Seaman: Jacqueline of the Carrier Pigeons.
31. Sharp: A Watcher in the Woods.
32. Warner: Being a Boy.
33. Wiggin: Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm.

GRADE IX.

A. Titles from which selection for class work may be made.

1. Narrative poems such as John Gilpin's Ride, Tam O'Shanter, Lochinvar, Michael, The Prisoner of Chillon, How They Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix, Herve Riel, Rossetti's The White Ship, Morris's Atlanta's Race, Lowell's The Courtin'.
2. Lyric poems such as Shelley's To a Skylark, Wordsworth's Reaper, Browning's Home Thoughts from Abroad, Emerson's Concord Hymn, Burns' A Man's a Man for a' That, Rosetti's Up-Hill, Keats's On first Looking into Chapman's Homer, Byron's On the Castle of Chillon, Tennyson's The Merman, Whitman's My Captain, Garland's The Wind in the Pines, Poe's To Helen, Beaching's Bicycling Song.
3. Short stories such as Poe's The Gold Bug, Hawthorne's The Ambitious Guest, Hardy's The Three Strangers, Brown's Farmer Ell's Vacation, Wilkins-Freeman's The Revolt of Mother, O. Henry's The Chaparral Prince, Davis' Gallegher.
4. Bates: A Ballad Book.
5. Hale: Ballads and Ballad Poetry.
6. Scott: The Lady of the Lake.
7. Homer: The Odyssey (Palmer's trans.), Iliad (Bryant's trans. in part).
8. Dickens: David Copperfield.
9. Scott: The Talisman; Quentin Durward.
10. Kipling: Kim.

A. Titles from which selection for class work may be made—Continued.

11. Shakespeare: Julius Caesar.
12. Franklin: Autobiography.
13. Informal studies of current literature, plays, photoplays, etc.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made.

1. Antin: The Promised Land.
2. Bates: The Story of the Canterbury Pilgrims.
3. Churchill: The Crisis.
4. Clemens: Tom Sawyer; Huckleberry Finn.
5. Cooper: The Spy.
6. Craddock: Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains.
7. Dana: Two Years Before the Mast.
8. Defoe: Robinson Crusoe.
9. Deland: Old Chester Tales; Doctor Lavendar's People.
10. Dickens: Oliver Twist; Old Curiosity Shop.
11. Doyle: The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes.
12. Fox: Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come.
13. Homer: The Iliad (as done into English by Butcher and Lang).
14. Hughes: Tom Brown's School Days.
15. Irving: Tales of a Traveler.
16. Keller: Story of My Life.
17. Kingsley: Westward Ho!
18. Kipling: Selections from the Day's Work and Phantom Rickshaw.
19. Mitchell: Hugh Wynne.
20. Montgomery: Tales of Avonlea.
21. Marshall, N. E.: English Literature for Boys and Girls (Selections by teacher).
22. Moore: Stories of Tennessee.
23. Parkman: The Oregon Trail.
24. Porter: Freckles; Laddie; Girl of the Limberlost.
25. Rideing, W. H.: Boyhood of Famous Authors.
26. Rolfe: Shakespeare, the Boy.
27. Scott: Guy Mannering; Woodstock.
28. Smith: Caleb West.
29. Stevenson: Black Arrow.
30. Stockton: Jolly Fellowship; Captain Chap.
31. Thompson-Seton: Wild Animals that I Have Known.
32. Vergil: Aeneid (in a good translation).
33. Wallace: Ben Hur.
34. Books contained in seventh and eighth year class reading lists but not actually read in class.

VIII. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON COMPOSITION IN THE TENTH, ELEVENTH, AND TWELFTH GRADES (SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL).

I. PURPOSES OF TEACHING COMPOSITION.

The purpose of teaching composition is to enable the pupil to speak and write correctly, convincingly, and interestingly. The first step toward efficiency in the use of language is the cultivation of earnestness and sincerity; the second is the development of accuracy and correctness; the third is the arousing of individuality and artistic consciousness.

A definite point of view must be kept in mind by the teacher if this general aim is to be realized; that point of view is that he must meet the needs of the individual pupil. The development of the expressional powers of the individual pupil should be the aim of the teacher rather than the teaching of specific form and rules. Each year of a pupil's life brings a broader outlook through added experience and more mature thought. Each year, consequently, there is need for an increased mastery of technique and of more mature forms of expression. Only from a realization on the part of the teacher of this growth of personality can an adequate course in composition be organized.

Such individual treatment requires that each pupil do much writing and speaking on subjects familiar to him. If material for oral and written work is taken from the experience of the pupil, familiarity with the subject will enable him (a) to give attention to correctness rather than to the mastery of the thought, (b) to write or speak convincingly by reason of his own interest, (c) to give some attention to the arrangement and presentation of his thoughts in a manner likely to arouse interest in others.

The classroom activities in teaching composition when arranged in the order of their importance are: (a) Letter writing; (b) relating of some simple incidents and explanation of familiar subjects; (c) analysis of pieces of writing; (d) reports; (e) literary composition; (f) debate.

Letter writing is placed first as being of most importance, since it is the form of writing the pupil will use most frequently. The pupil should be able to write a courteous letter according to the forms in general use, and of the degree of formality or informality appropriate to the occasion. Second in order of importance is exposition. The second aim, then, is to train the pupil to compose a

clear and readable paragraph or series of paragraphs on familiar subject matter, with due observance of unity and order and with some specific details. Third, is the ability to analyze and present in outline form the gist of a lecture or piece of literature, and to expand such an outline. The fourth aim comes when the pupil is more mature and has developed in power of expression. He should be able, with due time for study and preparation, to plan and work out a clear, well-ordered, and interesting report of some length upon his special interests—literary, scientific, commercial, or what not. These four aims should be kept in mind for all pupils. Other aims should be kept in mind for those who have special aptitudes; for those who have the argumentative mind, ability to arrange the material for a debate in an effective way; for those who have literary tastes, ability to write a short story or other bit of imaginative composition, with some vigor and personality of style and in proper form to be submitted for publication, and to arrange suitable stories in form for dramatic presentation.

The above aims have to do chiefly with content and the arrangement of the thought for effectiveness. It must be remembered also that correctness as to formal details is an aim throughout. These details are: A legible and firm handwriting, correct spelling, correctness in grammar and idiom, and observance of the ordinary rules for capitals and marks of punctuation. These, however, being not specifically literary, but the essentials of good workmanship in all kinds of written work, are the concern of all teachers, and should be enforced in all classes by the authority of the principal. Beyond these general requirements the writer should, through his English work, make an effort to gain an enlarged vocabulary through reading, and to use a vocabulary in his written work suitable to his audience and the occasion. A concise and vigorous style may often be gained unconsciously by the reading of authors who possess these qualities, but mere imitation of style may result in "fine writing." A pupil may be set to work on the same project, however, that an author has worked out if there is no conscious effort to use phrases or words that are not his own. Firmness and flexibility in writing may be gained by reconstructing sentences and paragraphs of one's composition.

II. CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES.

Classroom activities in composition should be founded upon and should grow out of the experiences of the pupils. These experiences may be classified as follows:

1. Those that school life provides:
   (a) School work.
   (b) School activities, social and athletic.

2. Those that outside interests provide:
   (*a*) Work—past, present, and future.
   (*b*) Amusements, play.
   (*c*) Interests in the home.
   (*d*) Other interests, as travel and local industries.
   (*e*) Reading.

School work itself furnishes a vast amount of material for composition. Heretofore there has been a tendency to base much of the theme work on the English classics. The introduction of the sciences and of vocational training, however, has made a great amount of material growing out of the actual experience of the pupils available. There is a growing tendency to use this material and to reduce greatly the amount of composition work based on the classics.

All theme work should be made as real and vital as possible. The following examples illustrate how school work may be adapted to this purpose and suggest methods of giving practice in different types of discourse. A pupil makes a field trip with his geography class; this trip furnishes more vital narrative material than "A visit to England at the time of Ivanhoe;" it is fresher material even than "Last year's fishing trip." Another visits a big chemical factory; extreme interest in the subject will tend to produce a good description of the factory. A third becomes interested in radium in the physics class. He reads all that he can find and assembles his knowledge in a good exposition. A senior has devoted some time to deciding what he will do after he leaves the high school. An argument in defense of his decision, whether for a certain college or for a certain vocation, has as its basis the mental experience of the pupil himself.

Outside interests—play, amusements, work, home activities, reading—will furnish a vast amount of material if the teacher is able to direct the pupils to it. For example, in the class is a boy living in a crowded section of the city who has taken a prize for having the best home garden. He tells how to have a successful garden. A boy whose father is assistant to the city forester has a collection of moths and writes well about these beautiful creatures. The list of such topics is well-nigh unlimited, and they are extremely interesting to the class. Moreover, the pupils feel that these topics are worthy of their efforts. Such exercises can often be presented before the entire school, sometimes with stereopticon views.

The sports furnish good subjects; for instance, a talk on "Swimming" might be given by the boy who takes the prizes in the contests; or on "How to win a foot race," by the boy who won a race in a field-day contest. In general, subjects should be suggested, not assigned.

For the very small minority who seem to have no developed interest, subjects may have to be assigned. Even in these cases a nucleus of interest may be found. A visitor in the house talks about the "glass industry." A boy listens and wants to know all about the subject. He reads (magazine articles preferred) and gives a talk, making the subject as interesting as possible, not a résumé of one article but assembled knowledge from many articles. Problems and questions of the hour may have interest for some who read the newspapers. This nucleus of interest should be in the mind of the pupil, not in the mind of the teacher. The problem of the teacher is to get at this nucleus.

Not only should the activities on which composition is based be real, not only should they touch the life of the pupil in some way through interest or experience, but the exercises themselves should have, as far as possible, a purpose. Much of the work in English may be used for definite ends in the school itself. A school paper and an annual furnish means of presenting the best poems, stories, and editorials produced in the English classes. By skillful management the local newspapers may be induced to publish some of these exercises. In large cities a report of school athletics is made for the local papers every week by pupils, who often receive remuneration. Programs may be arranged for the presentation before the school of the class work in English. Speeches of acceptance at the awarding of medals for various sports may be given as class exercises; and so may the after-dinner speeches for class banquets.

The orientation of the English work should be the constant aim of the teacher. The pupil will be able to get freedom of expression if he chooses an audience, and does not write with the vision of a teacher, blue pencil in hand, looking over his shoulder.

The activities so far described have value in that they are likely to produce clear and definite expression. They also furnish material for organization. What the organization of the material shall be is determined in each case by the purpose in view and the audience for whom the composition is prepared. Now, by carefully outlining each subject the pupil learns unity without being burdened with rules. By working out details with the help of the outline he learns coherence and emphasis in the same way.

To sum up: In the composition course, content should appeal to the pupil as first in importance; organization, second; details of punctuation, spelling, sentence structure, choice of words (matters of careful scrutiny), third.

Besides these general and practical activities, there are certain others by means of which special capabilities may be developed. Fact writing and imaginative writing come from two types of mind. The pupil who can write a short story should be given an opportunity

and should have special training, but excellence in short-story writing, or even fair work, should not be made a standard for passing pupils, nor should inability to write a fair story be made a basis for failure. All pupils should be encouraged to try, however, otherwise ability in this line may not be discovered. Many times this ability can be discovered early in the course. If a pupil can tell an incident or write a good description showing "vigor and personality," he is likely to be the one who can manage a short story. Some trials at verse writing will reveal pupils who have ability in this direction. The same is true of dramatization. Easy exercises in the writing of conversation that shows character will reveal pupils who, with special training, can dramatize. Here again the work, i. e., dramatization, should be based on the interests of the pupils. Material for dramatization may often be found in local history.

In short, there should be frequent exercises in imaginative writing as "trials" in the early years of the high school. Special training in dramatization, advertisement writing, journalism, and short-story writing should be placed in the last year.

What has been said of the short story is also true of debating—not every pupil has the debating mind. The one who has will discover himself in classroom argument and should be encouraged by the teacher to debate. Debating societies, where the pupils take the initiative, should be organized for those who can profit by them.

Pictures may be used at any time to suggest a theme or a train of thought. Some profitable work may be done by the use of the right type of picture. For example, the cartoon may often be used for the development of a short theme. The chief editorial of the day in many newspapers is often put into the cartoon.

Letter writing should be a frequent class exercise. Pupils should be given constant practice in the writing of letters that have a real purpose; the body of the letter should grow out of the interest of the pupils. The boys take more interest in ordering a bill of goods from "Spalding's" than books from a publishing company. The boy who has a garden would prefer to write for seeds. Letters of application should, if possible, be written for real positions, to real persons. Invitations to school parties and banquets should be made class exercises. Letters may, in some cases, be written to the principal asking for class standings.

The spirit of informal letter writing may be stimulated by the simpler letters of Stevenson, Dickens, Carroll, and Lincoln. The pupil should feel that in the letter he has absolute freedom to write on a familiar subject, with more revelation of personal feelings and tastes than in any other form. The problem is to show the pupil that he has mental and emotional experiences worth while putting into a letter.

The chief forms should be as familiar as the multiplication table. A letter that has one inadmissible feature in heading, salutation, or closing deserves censure.

Oral composition is growing in favor. Ability to think on one's feet and to express one's thoughts clearly, forcibly, and persuasively, should be the aim. Like the written work, this oral work should be definite and have a purpose. A class of boys, for example, sees a definite value in being trained to explain "how to make a weld" as a foreman must explain it to apprentices. It is not difficult for them to see that the one who interests his audience (the class), who holds their attention by his clear, distinct articulation and orderly presentation will very likely be able to control the men put in his charge. Young people are severe critics. Their vote of "good" or "bad" is a great incentive. Many excellent pupils who have for two years of their school life recited from five to ten minutes in a connected, orderly manner are often able to say but a few words, and those in a confused manner, when called upon to face a class. Oral composition is almost valueless unless the pupil stands before the class. Thirty pairs of strange, questioning, doubting, curious eyes are more terrifying than one familiar, critical pair that the pupil has been in the habit of reciting to, and hence the pupil gains valuable self-control in learning to face them. An exercise where presence, showing dignity and control, is essential, makes a direct appeal to pupils. In such exercises the pupil finds himself and gains initiative. The oral work should be continuous throughout the course, not made up of just a few lessons for a few weeks. The aim should be development of power to think before an audience and to find the language in which to express oneself.

In general, the classroom activities in composition should spring from the life of the pupil and should develop in him the power to express his individual experiences. In order to assist in meeting these requirements a course has been suggested which includes for each year (*a*) specific aims; (*b*) a collection of suitable material; (*c*) suggestions as to method applicable to the material.

III. WORK BY GRADES.

GRADE X.

A. Aims.

1. In general, clearer and more logical thinking; more correct, more clear and forcible expression.
2. Particular emphasis should fall on the sentence and on the elaboration of the paragraph.
3. Pupils should learn how to handle typical problems of business correspondence near to ordinary experience; telegrams.
4. Pupils should also have the opportunity of forming right habits in the use of the newspaper.
5. Advance in punctuation.

B. Material.

1. For paragraph writing: Subjects familiar to the pupil which lend themselves to treatment by contrast, by comparison, by example, by details, etc. Questions of civic interest and those concerning vocations are suitable material; also work in the shops or laboratories, and topics taken from other subjects in the curriculum.
2. Themes based on literature, provided the exercises are of vital interest to the pupil and do not lead to literary criticism and questions of technique. Problems of human conduct suggested by reading the classics furnish excellent material. For example: (*a*) Should Jean Valjean have revealed his identity? (*b*) Why Brutus failed. (*c*) Can the boy of to-day plan his life as Franklin did? (*d*) Gareth's ideals and the modern boy. (*e*) The development of the character of Silas Marner.
3. For dramatization: Conversation in real life revealing character; arguments carried on by conversation concerning familiar subjects; chapters from books that lend themselves easily to the dramatic form.
4. Incidents written up as news stories; brief editorials on matters of student opinion; advertisements, particularly if they can be put to use.
5. Class discussions of topics of current interest.
6. Spelling of words needed in themes; word building for increase of vocabulary.

C. Method.

1. Pupils should be taught how to organize material by the use of notes and outlines. Analysis of good paragraphs by contemporaries will help.
2. Pupils should also be taught how to test a paragraph as to its unity and point of view by summarizing it in a single sentence. This and the preceding suggestion apply particularly to explanation, expression of opinion, and historical narrative.
3. Study sentences by examining them in typical paragraphs. Let the class see how a paragraph is divided into sentences—how the sentences succeed each other and are related to each other.
4. Assist to greater ease in handling sentences by much sentence manipulation. Let the class condense, combine, transpose, expand, divide sentences of various types; make sure that they recognize grammatical relationships.
5. Show how clearness may be obtained by the use of connectives; by correct placing of modifiers; by unmistakable reference of pronouns; by correct sequence of tenses; by avoiding dangling participles; by omitting unnecessary words; by punctuation.
6. Speaking first and writing afterward is one way of insuring good organization and effective treatment of details.
7. Require each pupil to keep a list of words and expressions which he misuses or which he ought not to use at all, with correct equivalents.

GRADE XI.

A. Aims.

1. To give experience in collecting and organizing material for themes of some length—1,500 words or more; to teach the use of the expository outline for this purpose; to show how to secure interest and appropriate emphasis.
2. To give practice in debating and parliamentary usage.
3. To extend and fix knowledge of the principles of paragraph structure and sentence structure.

A. Aims—Continued.

4. To make the use of words more mature and more accurate.
5. To provide varied practice in the preparation and presentation of short talks, articles, editorials, and descriptions.

B. Material.

1. For short themes, expository descriptions of natural phenomena and mechanisms; plans of cities; discussions of colleges; informal arguments for and against certain vocations.
2. For long themes, material on science, manufacturing, commerce, or biography gathered from current books and periodicals and from observation.
3. Class study of prose, such as the best articles in the World's Work and Review of Reviews, in order to develop the idea of logical construction.
4. Class study of examples of social letters by recognized authors.
5. So much of grammar and rhetoric as the work of the pupils seems to demand.

C. Method.

1. Speaking, writing, reading good examples, and rewriting is a good sequence of activities.
2. Have class exercises in the organization of material.
3. Let members of the class report progress, exchange readings and clippings and bibliography.
4. Let pupils hand in outlines in advance of finished papers.
5. Pupils should learn how to consult library catalogues and periodical indexes such as the Reader's Guide, how to file notes and keep a card index, and how to revise manuscript.
6. Most of the work of writing should be done in the classroom under supervision.
7. There should be much testing of the pupils' work as to clearness through unity and coherence.

GRADE XII.

A. Aims.

1. To continue and build upon the work of Grade XI as may be possible and necessary.
2. To utilize special interests for particular classes where conditions permit this.

B. Material.

1. Current events, magazine articles, topics developed by observation and library work, questions for informal debate, biography, general reading.
2. In special courses: (a) Short stories; (b) dramatizations and verse making; (c) debating; (d) newspaper writing; (e) economic and industrial interests; (f) commercial correspondence.

C. Method.

In teaching the short story, the plot should be laid in the environment of the pupil, so that he writes about real experiences. A pupil who has lived in the West can give the atmosphere of the desert; and the boy who has been a porter on a boat on one of the Great Lakes during the summer feels at home in that environment, and the pictures he gives are likely to be vivid. Plots may be given outright to the pupil. The ability to make the reader see the story—the characters in action—to make him feel that the conversation is "real talk," should be the aim of the writer.

In teaching dramatization the work should touch the life of the pupil. Real problems may be worked out with types of characters familiar to the pupil. For instance, the class in house decoration may work out a short play. The pupils taking this course find a common problem—the redecorating and rearrangement of furniture in their own homes. So they select the scene; any home at house-cleaning time; mother and father who are away from home at the opening of the play; six children, from 12 to 22, who plan to arrange the furniture, rugs, etc., and to do some papering and refurnishing for themselves. The purpose is to bring out the development in taste of the pupils, the ideas of color, arrangement, etc., they have gained in the course in house decoration.

Local history may furnish much material for dramatization, as may any dramatic incident in history.

For the work in debating, wide reading on subjects of national importance. These subjects should be of present interest and should not be too difficult or involve too much detail.

For the work in exposition the nucleus of interest for the long expository theme should be in the mind of the pupil. He learns a little about radium. His curiosity is aroused. By using the Reader's Guide he finds he may learn almost all there is known about this interesting subject. A boy in the fourth year has made a gas engine. His interest in engines is keen enough to lead him to find out about marine engines. Economic questions concerning certain vocations are good material. The problem in the above cases will be to make the subjects interesting to an ordinary audience.

For the work in advertising analysis of good advertising in newspapers and magazines; the writing of advertisements for school activities—athletic contests, plays, social events, sales of products made in the school.

For journalism, the writing of editorials for school publications; the study of the "news story," and the application of its principles in the reporting of school activities—athletics, social events, etc.

For verse writing: Material for writing verse should be confined to very simple themes which school life furnishes. An incident in American history might be put into the ballad form. Occasionally a pupil is found who may be encouraged to express genuine feeling in the lyric form.

IX. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON LITERATURE IN THE TENTH, ELEVENTH, AND TWELFTH GRADES (SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL).

I. ENDS TO BE ATTAINED.

1. The literature lesson should broaden, deepen, and enrich the imaginative and emotional life of the student. Literature is primarily a revelation and an interpretation of life; it pictures from century to century the growth of the human spirit. It should be the constant aim of the English teacher to lead pupils so to read that they find their own lives imaged in this larger life, and attain slowly, from a clearer appreciation of human nature, a deeper and truer understanding of themselves.

2. The study of literature should arouse in the minds of pupils an admiration for great personalities, both of authors and characters in literature. No man is higher than his ideals. Human beings grow unconsciously in the direction of that which they admire. Teachers of English must, then, consciously work to raise the pupils' standards of what is true and fine in men and women. The literature lesson must furnish the material out of which may be created worthy and lasting ideals of life and conduct.

3. The literature lesson should raise the plane of enjoyment in reading to progressively higher levels. Reading is still the chief recreation of many people. It should be the aim of the English teacher to make it an unfailing resource and joy in the lives of all. To make it yield the greatest pleasure will involve the consideration of literature not only as to its content as a statement of facts and ideas but as an art. The literature teacher should not be content with arousing an interest in what is said; if he would give the fullest enjoyment, he must develop some appreciation of the way in which it is said.

4. In order that the reading habit may yield the pleasure and joy of which it is capable, the English lesson should give to the student such knowledge of the scope and content of literature as will leave him with a sense of abundance of interesting material, and a trained ability and desire to find for himself such intellectual and spiritual food as he may need for his growth and his pleasure.

5. In order that the above ends may be realized, the teacher of literature must assume his part in the conscious development of the intellectual faculties of his students. They must be trained not only

to feel more sensitively and deeply, and to imagine more vividly, but to think more accurately and intelligently, that they may have the power not only of correct interpretation but of sane and wise application to life of the literature to which it is the duty of the teacher to lead them.

II. CHOICE OF LITERATURE TO ATTAIN THESE ENDS.

1. Literature chosen for any given school should make a natural appeal to the pupils concerned, for without interest, which depends upon this appeal, there will be no enjoyment; without enjoyment, there will be no beneficial result. All literature that in the light of experience contains no such appeal should be excluded, no matter how respectable it may be from age or reputation.

2. The literature chosen for study, as distinguished from that used as supplementary reading, should be above the level of the pupil's unguided enjoyment, otherwise there is no raising of the standard of taste. It is the task of the teacher to discover to the pupil undreamed-of interest, and to lead him to find enjoyment in literature increasingly rich and fine.

3. In order to attain the first end of literature, the broadening of the mental and spiritual horizon of the student, the books chosen for study should be worth while; that is, they should contain stimulating thought, sound ethical ideals, normal and strong characters, noble conduct, pure feeling. This does not imply that every book should point a moral, but that the pervading ethical tone of every book should be without question sound, in order that its effect may be wholesome, at a period in which standards of conduct are being formed that may last through a lifetime. The morbidly introspective, the vicious, the mentally abnormal, even when drawn with great art, should not be presented to adolescents.

4. In order that the literature course may leave with students an abundance of rich material from which, throughout life, to make choice in reading, some historical view of literature should be given. To do this, it is not necessary to study the history of literature with any thoroughness, nor to study or even mention writings whose importance is mainly historical or whose appeal is to an experience of the world far beyond the possibility of high-school students. It is important, however, to cover all the greater writers of our past who approach the young mind, in either its experience or its ideals; to extend as far as possible the mental reach of the pupils, by making them feel the lasting values of some of our older literature. It is also important to encourage, by means of supplementary reading lists and library reference topics, individual excursions into literary fields not the province of regular class work.

5. In general, the trend of choice should favor the "classics." We hear much to-day of the need for contemporary literature, as if a substitution of current books for those that have endured or are enduring the test of time, would solve the problems of English teaching. The main trouble lies not in our choice of books. Classic literature still has an appeal for healthy-minded young people, if it is sympathetically and wisely presented. However, students must be shown how to find the riches in great books; their gold does not lie on the surface, but yields only to patient search. Great books still have the power to strengthen and uplift, to furnish solace and good cheer. Who shall say that boys and girls of to-day will not need their clear note of inspiration and courage as much if not more than their fathers and mothers of yesterday. It is the joyous prerogative of the teacher of literature to lead his pupils to this source of permament riches. If he fails, it is not because the wealth is no longer of value, but because he is unable to point the way.

6. But while the general tendency in forming a course in literature should be toward that which years have made still richer, the modern and the easy have still their legitimate place in high-school work. Modern literature reflects life as we are living it to-day. Its problems and emotions are ours; its atmosphere is that in which we live. Because of this, current magazines and modern books quickly win the interest. If they are human and true they will ultimately enlarge the idealism of our students and thus prove of permanent value. Any reading, therefore, with a high ethical or social message, no matter how short its life, may well find a place in the literature hour. Moreover, with the admission of a large foreign element into our schools, and the steadily increasing number of boys and girls seeking a directly utilitarian education, there comes of necessity in many places a demand for literature closely enough connected with the daily life and thought of the pupil to secure his attention and create an interest upon which to build. Such conditions may justify, in many industrial and vocational schools, the reading in class of books not truly deserving the name of literature. But although such books may be temporarily necessary where there is little previous cultivation to build on, it should never be forgotten that their use is but a means to an end, and the end the introduction to a literature broad in its humanity, and rich and full in its spiritual appeal. The boy and the girl seeking a strictly practical training need to have life enriched, not less, but more than their brother and sister in the academic or classical curriculum, whose period of schooling will be longer, and whose lives, therefore, will be more likely to be surrounded by educative influences.

7. The English course should provide a variety of literary types. A true education should offer a range of material wide enough to encourage a versatility of tastes; it should also give some conception of the comprehensiveness of literature. More important still, it should offer variety enough to make it possible for each student to find the type which holds for him the highest pleasure and greatest good. The boy for whom lyric poetry has little appeal may be roused to thought and action by the drama or novel; one attracted by none of these may be caught and held by the essay or great public speech. Moreover, the young mind craves change; it is incapable of the long-sustained attention of the maturer student of college grade. School literature, therefore, must be varied enough to permit of necessary adaptability and change.

III. GENERAL PRINCIPLES TO BE CONSIDERED IN FORMING A COURSE IN LITERATURE.

There are certain fundamental principles a consideration of which will help in the formation of high-school courses in literature. The general aims of literature teaching apply to all schools, even the most practical, but to attain them varying means must be employed to meet varying conditions. In the past the course of study has been shaped solely for the academic curriculum, and has presupposed no variety in needs, tastes, or mental background. On the contrary, the greatest diversity exists; consequently different types of literature should be stressed in different types of schools, and the treatment should vary to suit the conditions.

1. In a purely academic or classical curriculum the course in literature may with safety be made more frankly literary than in any other type. The student may be encouraged to linger more in the past; to learn the facts of literary history and to read to know what the world has produced that is fine and lasting. He may be led to a conscious examination of literary types, and may be introduced more definitely to the study of literature as an art. We need give less attention with him to contemporary writers. He has definitely entered upon a prolonged course of studies, and it may be taken for granted that he will get, somewhere along the way, a good deal of modern literature that students going directly from high school to practical life must get early if they are to get at all; moreover, we may with some confidence rely on his classroom work to form standards of taste that will make him at the end of his high-school course a safe guide for himself in the field of contemporary literature.

2. The course in literature for vocational and technical curriculums must never lose sight of the fact that its reason for being is its inspirational value. It may present any literature that the pupils can grasp which is full of power to stimulate by reason of its broad human

interest. Students in such curriculums will usually profit more by the study of literature that is objective and positive than that which is more delicate and imaginative. The poetry, in general, should be strong in human interest and should consist of short, fine wholes rather than long, classic masterpieces. Modern poetry, with its strong humanitarian trend, will furnish many fine examples. More emphasis should also be given to modern prose. Novels and dramas will make a certain appeal to this class of students, and should be chosen solely with a view to their power to arouse a broader and deeper knowledge of human nature and of life. The discursive literary essay of the past or present has no place here, but in its stead should be strong, meaty, ethical prose, stimulative of serious discussion of conduct. The modern public speech, if it sounds a clear note of idealism, should also be used, especially that which can be related to the experience of the reader. In general, the literature in these schools should be chosen primarily for its content and its immediate effect on the lives of the students.

A course in literature for vocational and technical curriculums should also make a special effort to give help for future leisure hours. Attention should be given to newspapers, magazines, and theaters. Periodicals such as the Outlook, Independent, and System well deserve class time. In every way, by talks from the librarian, visits to libraries, various types of reading lists, talks on new books, illustrated lectures on authors, their homes, and their writings, a constant effort should be made to arouse the interest of the students in books and reading.

3. The rural school presents still other problems. In general, the development of the country boy and girl, both mental and spiritual, is slower than that of young people in cities and large towns. The country furnishes little community life, therefore many opportunities for entertainment and instruction are lacking that city children enjoy. The home life, with its long hours of labor, offers little to stimulate mental growth beyond the narrow range of family interests. Books are hard to get; libraries poorly developed, if they exist at all; magazines and newspapers, even, are beyond the reach of many; the country grammar school, too, is usually far less thorough and stimulating than that of the city. As a result, the high school can count on practically no foundation for culture, but must build often from the bottom up. Where such conditions exist, no greater lack of wisdom could be shown than to attempt to teach the course of study suited to the more highly stimulated youth of the city. The pace set must be slower, the literature must be simpler, the treatment must be more concrete and objective; moreover, the course must furnish, especially at the beginning, something of the great body of folklore, fable, legend, myth, and hero story which has, almost without help,

become a part of the mental life of children in communities of a higher intellectual development, and has furnished a foundation upon which, in all our higher work in literature, we have constantly built. It is our special duty, in the rural school, to open up this practically unknown world of the imagination, ranging freely over it, until the country boy and girl are caught by its glamour and are willing to linger in its beauty and splendor. That the task is hard, the facilities few, and most of those working in this field are yet inadequate to it, only makes greater the need that we should clearly see the piece of work that is waiting to be done, for only so can even a beginning be made.

4. The time allotment, as well as the course, may well differ in different curriculums. Students preparing for a liberal-arts college should be able to get along with less time for literature; partly because they will, in most cases, start with a better literary inheritance, and partly because, through their other languages and their later education, they will get far more. The time allotment should be increased in curriculums where vocational work is stressed. This applies especially to the final year in short-course vocational curriculums and to rural schools.

5. As already suggested, the general treatment of literature should also vary in different curriculums. For pupils who are going immediately to work, it is important to treat literature approximately as it is treated by men and women of the world who are not scholars, so that they may take habits of intelligent reading to their after-school life. Teachers in rural schools and technical and vocational curriculums must give more and expect the pupil to dig out less than is the usual custom. The English lesson here may well be turned into a literary club, in which only the big things gain attention, and where success is tested by interest and enthusiasm, not by knowledge of details. On the other hand, students who are to be scholars in higher fields may well be given more severe and critical habits of reading.

6. In the larger schools, in which more than one section of a given subject is necessary, the regular literature courses may be profitably enriched by elective courses. It is rarely possible to find literature appealing equally to all members of a class, no matter what the type of school nor how thoughtful the selection, and yet the necessities of the present public-school system preclude the absolutely individual method of teaching. Students in their senior year, or if well trained, in their junior year, may wisely be permitted to follow their strongest interests, either by electives taken as options or as supplementary to the regular courses. Pupils who are not going to college will profit especially by such courses. A real advantage, sometimes overlooked, is the stimulus to a teacher that may come from the op-

portunity of being able to do something fresh and original in the elective course. For this reason the planning of the course should be in the hands of the individual teacher.

IV. PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE GROUPING OF LITERATURE.

Although the greatest freedom should be possible in the selecting of literature for a high-school course, there are certain well-established facts that may guide teachers in the determination of the best reading for different years. Although, given a live, enthusiastic teacher and a normal class, almost any piece of literature may be read with some success at almost any time, there is always a best time, a time when, because of certain dominant tendencies in the pupil, a book makes its strongest appeal with the minimum help from the teacher because it presents the maximum interest for the student. Such psychological moments the teacher should seek for, in order that upon this natural interest as a foundation he may develop a progressively higher and finer interest in the best literature without the danger of arousing that general distaste which is the fatal result of so much of our teaching.

The principles of arrangement most followed to-day seem to be (1) those of greater or less simplicity of subject matter, and (2) of chronology. Literature easy to grasp is very generally sought for the ninth and tenth years, on the mistaken assumption, apparently, that understanding is necessarily followed by enjoyment and profit. As a result, much American literature is found in these grades, although many students have read practically little else in their grammar-school classes. This is frequently taught chronologically, before the mental vision has broadened enough to have any real appreciation of what is meant by the historical view. An examination of the natural tastes of boys at this age will give us valuable side lights on such a plan. The 14 or 15 year old boy loves action and adventure. The men he admires are those who do and dare, not those who reflect and dream. Give him, then, in the eighth and ninth grades, stirring narrative, full of movement and manly virtues. This is the place for Homer's heroic Greek and Macaulay's noble Romans, for the elemental passion of the men of ballad times, for Scott and Stevenson and all others of their stirring company.

Such literature may be continued even into the tenth year of schools where development is slow, though usually by this time a mental and spiritual change is noticeable that demands a stronger mental food. This period brings serious problems to English teachers. Students are less easy to interest and arouse. The boy is particularly hard to hold. Unless the literature chosen catches him by its appeal, he may be lost entirely. To do this requires at this

stage more than mere adventure. His interest in life is no longer mainly objective; he is conscious, often morbidly so, of his own developing nature and of those about him; his ideals of right and wrong are wavering; he is possessed of an overweening sense of his own power and importance. He will not be driven; he may with difficulty be led. At no time in the course is so much wisdom needed on the part of the teacher, not only in the selection of literature, but in its presentation. The novel or poem with a prominent love element has no place here; the pure comedy of Shakespeare often lacks sufficient vitality. On the contrary, the Shakespearean play presenting large and serious questions of right and wrong is of the greatest value. This is the place for "The Merchant of Venice" and "Julius Cæsar," plays so ideal for this period that high-school teachers should never cease their efforts to persuade the grammar school to leave them fresh in interest and unharmed by superficial treatment for this most difficult of all stages of growth. The stirring public address, preferably the modern, whose message is one of patriotism and strong practical idealism, is eminently safe and most vital, leading us at will to stimulating discussion of conduct, and new interest in civic and national life. Boys and girls are just entering into manhood and womanhood. They are eager for a taste of life and its problems. It is the school's duty to introduce them to it wisely, filling their minds with vital questions of human responsibility other than those turning upon the love of men and women for each other and the they are too immature to solve. Such reading will fill much of their leisure time, and the teacher should strive to direct it into pure and safe channels, but in class the effort should be rather to develop broader and more comprehensive ideals of human duty and service.

If success has been attained in holding the good will of students past the tenth year, the rest of the way is comparatively easy. In the eleventh year it is possible to return to the novel, this time frankly to discuss the relations of men and women to each other. Here is the place par excellence for the high ideality of the "Idylls of the King" and for "Silas Marner," both showing so clearly and yet so purely the dangers and the noble possibilities of the love of man for woman. The great plays of Shakespeare will also gain a ready interest if the teacher has the skill to lead the pupils to see the human conflicts and the great moral laws operative in each. Place here also the strong, ethical essay, stimulative of thought on human responsibility and the problems of everyday life. The food for the growing mind and soul should be steadily strengthened, care only being taken to select that which is wholesome, for it is still youth and not maturity that is being fed.

In the twelfth year, even earlier in schools in which the pupils have some literary background, the appeal may with safety be made

frankly literary. It is now not difficult to arouse in young people an interest in the world's heritage from the past. The chronological plan is here a wise one, not only for English, but for American, literature. The mental horizon may be made to expand by such study; a more just estimate may be gained of what is truly meant by literature; a significance and interest may be easily given to many a well-known masterpiece that, detached from its setting, would be dull and valueless, and students may be sent out into life knowing at least something of the treasures that are to be found in books.

V. CHANGES NEEDED IN THE METHODS OF TEACHING.

Given well-selected lists of reading for high schools and a grouping based on some definite knowledge of the psychology of youth, may one then confidently expect that interest and enthusiasm in the literature class which spell success? Unfortunately not. The best course of study in the world may be ruined in the handling—too frequently good courses are so ruined. No subject in the curriculum is so dependent on right teaching as literature; none, probably, has more trying to teaching it who are unsuited to the work. The idea still obtains among administrative officers that any one with ordinary intelligence and common sense can teach literature, and it is still deplorably easy to find teachers ready to undertake it who have little knowledge of the subject, no established reading habits, and no personal reaction toward it other than as a task to be performed, or at best a body of information to be apprehended intellectually. Such an approach to the work means inevitable failure and is the cause of much more of the lack of success we so constantly hear of than any mistakes in the framing of the course of study. Given an enthusiastic teacher, knowing and loving literature, believing in its possibilities as a power for pleasure and profit in human life, eager to interpret its message to the youth before him, and success may be achieved with the poorest course of study; without these qualities in the teacher, it can not be hoped for from the best. The ideal teacher of literature is as much "called" to his work as the minister, as much "born" to it as the poet, and no one electing to serve in this field can hope to succeed without some of the same preparedness.

But a teacher of literature unable to reach this highest point of accomplishment may still do much to improve his work. There is a lamentable lack of any true pedagogy of English teaching. "Pedagogy" need not be pedantry. It should be a clear realization of the change to be effected in the pupil by the study of literature and of the steps to be taken to accomplish that end by both pupil and teacher. Such a definite knowledge is, in very many cases, absolutely lacking. As a result there is vagueness and indecision on the teacher's

part, both in the assignment of the lessons and the conduct of the recitation, and a similar vagueness on the student's part as to what is expected of him or how to go about it. The result is too often no preparation of lessons at all. The school still has too much of the English assignment that bids the class read the next chapter or study the next 200 lines, and the plea of the unprepared student that he read his lesson over three or four times, but how many make the connection that sees in the boy's or girl's attitude of mind merely the logical result of the teacher's? It is prefectly possible for the assignment of a literature lesson to be as definite and accurate as one in history or science, but it requires the same knowledge of values and the same careful planning of the work beforehand. Young readers of literature must be taught what they are to look for—must even be started on the right road. It is the undirected search that results in discouragement and failure, and presently in abandonment of the pursuit.

A true pedagogy of English teaching will lead, also, to a more careful consideration of the relative values of different pieces of literature. Before beginning the teaching of each work studied the teacher should first ask himself such questions as the following: (1) What is the chief value in this piece of literature for the particular class of young people to whom it is to be given, and how must I treat it to bring this out? (2) What knowledge or experience of life has the author assumed on the part of his readers that these pupils lack and that is a necessary condition of intelligent appreciation? (3) What was the intent, the mood, the spirit of the author—what emotion did he wish to arouse in the reader's mind? (4) How much of this shall I try to communicate to the class; how much leave undeveloped? (5) What, if anything, has this work come to mean in the traditions of our race, and what value has this for the students? Having settled these points in his own mind, the more difficult work remains of wording the lesson assignment. What questions can be asked that will inspire the pupil to search carefully in his study till he finds the answer—that the work has been faithfully done? For only so can the teacher hold the respect of his students for the assignment and their willingness to make future effort. Such teaching means work for the instructor and work for the student, but it is labor blessed for both in its abundant harvest not only of knowledge and power but of interest, satisfaction, and pleasure.

A better pedagogy of English teaching will result also in a decidedly different treatment of different types of literature. Poetry, especially the lyric, should be less exhaustively studied than other types. Close analytical treatment and a painstaking mastery of notes are ruinous to its spirit and sensuous appeal. The aim should be to

awaken appreciation, and the teacher must help with the contagion of his own pleasure over its finest points of thought and style, and the inspiration resulting from his own sympathetic, interpretative reading. The recitation should be freed as much as possible from the book. Short passages should be memorized after appreciation has been gained and carefully followed up by being frequently recalled to memory in association with other literature or experience. When possible, lyric poetry should also be sung.

In studying prose fiction, discrimination should be made between the rapidly moving tale, like "Treasure Island," that one sits up half the night to finish, and the leisurely book like "Cranford" or "Vanity Fair," that is good to live in for a time. When an author has used every effort to eliminate the unessential, to secure unity, suspense, quick movement, it is contrary to a real understanding of a book to potter over it for a month or two. Unless, therefore, the novels chosen are very long or discursive, or lend themselves to much vital discussion of conduct and motive, pupils should be taught to read them in about the way people actually do read novels; that is, swiftly and chiefly for the interest of the plot and outcome. This is particularly important in the early high-school years.

The method of reading plays should be sharply differentiated from that of reading novels. Pupils should be trained in the difficult intellectual exercise of visualizing the play as an acted thing, of holding the various characters visually before the imagination. There may be legitimate use for motion pictures here in getting the habit started. A verbal setting of scenes, dressing and placing of characters, imagining of gestures, facial expression, and tone of voice will also help to make the characters and scenes real. Reading in parts, classroom presentation of scenes, or the production of simple plays like Lady Gregory's should also vivify and vitalize the work.

The treatment of the essay should vary with the type The study of personal essays should be very informal—largely the picking out of good bits, the learning of quotable sayings, the findings of sidelights on life and character. The study of the heavier ethical essay should be analytical, closely reasoned, and should lead to the expression of carefully weighed and tested opinion on the part of the pupil. A similar treatment should be given the public speech.

VI. VARIOUS DEFINITE MEANS OF STUDYING LITERATURE.

The closely analytical treatment of all literary masterpieces, with an exhaustive study of notes, allusions, figures of speech, meanings of words, etc., is happily giving way, before the just criticism which has assailed it, to a more intelligent handling, which decides upon

method in accordance with the value of the piece to be taught and the chief ends to be attained by its use. Along with this outgrown method should also go much of the present reading in class, especially the common practice of reading ahead at sight, with one pupil repeating to the rest the words of the book open before them. Such an exercise is usually sheer waste of time. There is rarely, if ever, grasp enough of the thought on a pupil's part to make the reading in any sense illuminating, so that the effort is worse than useless. There are, however, other kinds of classroom study that are effective aids in varying and enlivening a literature class. These include:

1. Interpretative reading, in which the minds of all are actively engaged on the problem of how the thought of the writer can best be expressed. This is the only kind of reading aloud by students that is worth while.

2. Discussion, necessitating some personal reaction, such as the formation of opinions on what has been read. This calls for skillful questioning on the part of the teacher, to avoid mere recital of facts on the one hand, and bluffing on the other.

3. The sharing of information (resulting from library work, etc.), that throws light on the book being studied, or in some way enlarges the cultural background.

4. Reports on supplementary reading, not perfunctory, but such as advertise to the class the book read.

5. Practice in reading to one's self in the particular manner suited to a special book. This may be a "books open" exercise, based on definite directions from the teacher, and ending in some test of the efficiency with which they have been applied.

6. Memorizing. This should be definite and regular; a body of selected passages of high worth should be required in each year. Passages should not be long, but should be rigidly insisted upon. The habit of memorizing can in most cases be trained by practice, so that the task becomes easier; and the result, a body of good verse and prose permanently in the mind, is perhaps the best thing pupils can get out of their study in English.

7. Dramatizing. A valuable exercise especially in the ninth and tenth grades, as an aid in arousing interest and leading to more attentive reading and clearer visualization, though in the present highly stimulated state of all dramatic work, in danger of being overdone. It should not be used, however, unless the material has actual dramatic appeal.

8. Home reading. This is very important because it is what the school is trying to train young people to do. It should include use of the public library, having a library card, learning to use the catalogue and the ordinary books of reference, drawing books for recre-

ative reading. It should also include some guidance in book buying. Pupils ought to know that, through the "Everyman's Library" and other series, almost any really important book in literature can be had in attractive form for a price within the reach of all. There should be as much as possible of home reading under stimulating guidance, and of definite occasion provided for pupils to talk freely about what they read of their own choice.

VII. SCHOOL ACTIVITIES AS AIDS IN TEACHING LITERATURE.

Probably no other department of a high-school faculty is so often called upon to assist in all branches of school activities, save only athletics, as the English department, and although such work often lays an extra burden on shoulders already heavily laden, there is justification for it in the fact that no other work of the school may be so benefited by them. The following, when properly developed, are of unquestionable value to the literature teacher:

1. The school library. This is as important to the English teacher as the laboratory is to the teacher of science. The smallest school should have the nucleus of a library, and there should be a regular yearly appropriation for increasing it. The library should be made the most beautiful room in the building, breathing an atmosphere of refinement and culture. The wise English teacher works hand in hand with the school librarian, informing her of her plans and desires for her students, and enlisting her ready cooperation. Many a skillful librarian, by her apparently chance comment in a seemingly idle moment, has enticed an unwilling student to a reading list when all but sheer force has failed with the teacher. Relations should be established with the nearest public library for loan collections of books and pictures. Acquaintance should also be made with the town librarian, especially where there is no school library, and her interest and cooperation enlisted.

2. Literary societies. These flourish best away from large schools and centers of population. A little group of more thoughtful pupils, reading with an enthusiastic teacher, may get a great deal of pleasure and profit. In rural schools, too small to support many societies, these may expand into a literary-dramatic school club, which, if carefully led, may do much for school and students alike.

3. The dramatic club. The dramatic society and the school play may be either a great benefit to the school or a great nuisance. The dangers are jealously and quarrelsomeness among the students; friction with the school authorities; undue expenditure of time; unworthy standards, resulting in tawdriness, vulgarity, cheap professionalism; and, in some schools, extravagance and personal display. The benefits may be realization of what makes for dramatic value;

unification of school spirit and loyalty; inclusion in the school activities of nonathletic pupils; meeting of pupils and teachers on a common basis of endeavor; character training through both acting, which is subordinating oneself to the character presented, and the work behind the scenes, which is subordinating oneself to the public success of others or of a large project. There will be further advantages if the plays chosen are of literary merit, so as to deserve a permanent place in the actors' memories, to give them permanent standards of dramatic judgment, of character, of action, of speech.

To secure the benefits and avoid the dangers of school dramatics, cooperation on the part of the teacher (preferably the English teacher) is necessary. But it should be cooperation, not direction; above all, not censorship. The teacher should look upon the play as a sort of recreation in which she and the pupils come together on a common ground, with a common interest in acting, and a common ambition for the honor of the school. She should be a source of suggestions, not of prescriptions; often a young teacher, fresh from college dramatics will be more successful than the more experienced "coach." She should put the play, from the start, frankly on the amateur basis, centering attention on character interpretation and feeling for the spirit of the play, rather than on professional technique; the actors must remain school boys and girls, not suggest a third-rate road company. There should be an attempt made to include as many pupils as possible in the management of the annual play, and to raise the standard yearly in respect to literary value and imaginative treatment; otherwise the society's chief reason for being is defeated.

4. The school paper. School journalism is another form of student activity that (in its reaction not only on the editors but on the school) may be a vital force for good in English work, and on this account deserves the friendly cooperation of some interested teacher.

VIII. SUGGESTIVE LISTS OF BOOKS FOR STUDY AND GENERAL READING.

GRADE X.

A. Titles from which selection for class work may be made.

Poetry:

Lowell, The Vision of Sir Launfal.
Tennyson, Enoch Arden; Oenone; The Lotus Eaters; Ulysses.
Coleridge, The Ancient Mariner.
Arnold, The Forsaken Merman; Sohrab and Rustum.
Byron, Prisoner of Chillon.
Burns, Bannockburn.

Modern poems such as the following:

Thomas, Edith M., Moly.
Whitman, Walt, Vigil Strange I Kept on the Field One Night; Warble for Lilac-Time.

A. Titles from which selection for class work may be made—Continued.

Poetry—Continued.

Moody, Wm. Vaughn, Gloucester Moors; Road-Hymn for the Start; On a Soldier Fallen in the Philippines.

Branch, Anna Hempstead, The Youngest Son of His Father's House.

Peabody, Josephine Preston, The Singing Man.

Schauffler, Robert Haven, Scum o' the Earth. (*See* Atlantic Monthly, Nov., 1911.)

Henley, My Unconquerable Soul. (*See* Ashmun's Modern Prose and Poetry for Secondary Schools for most of the above.)

Drama:

Shakespeare, Merchant of Venice; As You Like It; The Tempest; Coriolanus.

Maeterlinck, The Blue Bird.

Peabody, The Piper.

Rostand, Cyrano de Bergerac.

Fiction:

Blackmore, Lorna Doone.

Scott, Ivanhoe.

Wallace, Ben Hur.

Gaskell, Cranford. (Girls.)

Churchill, The Crisis.

Hugo, Les Miserables. (Abridged.)

——— Modern American Short Stories.

Other prose:

Irving, The Alhambra.

Stevenson, Travels with a Donkey; An Inland Voyage.

Burroughs, Selected Essays. (*See* Riverside Essays, Houghton Mifflin Co.)

Grenfell, Adrift on an Ice Pan. (*See* Riverside Literature Series.)

Speeches on American citizenship:

Curtis, Public Duty of Educated Men.

Schurz, International Arbitration.

Van Dyke, Salt.

Porter, Eulogy of Ulysses S. Grant.

Reed, The Immortality of Good Deeds. (For the above, *see* Shurter's Manual of Modern Oratory.)

Conferences on current literature and current plays.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made.

Fiction:

Bacheller, Irving, Eben Holden.

Barrie, The Little Minister.

Besant, All Sorts and Conditions of Men.

Black, Judith Shakespeare; Princess of Thule.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone.

Cable, The Grandissimes; Dr. Sevier.

Churchill, Coniston; The Crossing; Richard Carvel.

Clemens, Innocents Abroad.

Connor, The Man from Glengarry.

Doyle, The White Company.

Duncan, Dr. Luke of the Labrador.

Ebers, An Egyptian Princess.

Fox, The Trail of the Lonesome Pine.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made—Continued.

Fiction—Continued.

Grus, The Reds of the Midi.
Halévy, Abbé Constantin.
Jackson, Ramona.
Kipling, The Day's Work; Soldiers Three.
London, Martin Eden.
Lever, Charles O'Malley.
Mitchell, Hugh Wynne, Free Quaker; The Adventures of Francois.
Moore, The Jessamy Bride.
Norris, The Pit.
Page, Red Rock.
Sienkiewicz, With Fire and Sword.
Smith, The Master Diver.
Tarkington, A Gentleman from Indiana; Monsieur Beaucaire.
Wallace, The Wood Carver of 'Lympus.
White, The Blazed Trail.
Wister, The Virginian.
Wright, The Winning of Barbara Worth.

Nonfiction:

Addams, Twenty Years at Hull House.
Antin, Mary, The Promised Land.
Brooks, An American Citizen.
Burroughs, Camping and Tramping With Roosevelt.
Collier, Germany and the Germans.
Davis, Our English Cousins; Three Gringoes in Venezuela and Central America.
Duncan, Dr. Grenfell's Parish.
Franck, A Vagabond Journey Around the World.
Funston, Memoirs of Two Wars.
Gilchrist, Life of Mary Lyon.
Griffis, An American in Holland.
Irvine, From the Bottom Up.
Howe, Two in Italy.
Jefferson, John, Autibiography.
Keller, The World I Live In; Story of My Life.
Lang, The Mystery of Mary Stuart.
Maeterlinck, The Life of the Bee.
Muir, The Story of My Boyhood and Youth.
Morris, Stage Life.
Palmer, Life of Alice Freeman Palmer.
Richards, Florence Nightingale.
Rittner, Impressions of Japan.
Reppiier, Our Convent Days.
Riis, The Making of an American; How the Other Half Lives; Theodore Roosevelt, the Citizen.
Roosevelt, Hunting Trips of a Ranchman.
Ross, The Changing Chinese.
Stevenson, Vailima Letters.
Thackeray, Letters to an American Family.
Tullivan, A Woman Who Went to Alaska.
Washington, Up From Slavery.
Wallace, The Lure of the Labrador Wild.
White, The Forest; The Mountains.

GRADE XI.

A. Titles from which selection for class work may be made.

Poetry:

Tennyson, Idylls of the King (The Coming of Arthur, Gareth and Lynette, Lancelot and Elaine, The Holy Grail, The Passing of Arthur); The Princess (girls); The Lady of Shalott; Sir Galahad; Merlin and the Gleam.

Browning, The Patriot; My Last Duchess; The Flight of the Duchess; Incident of the French Camp; Home Thoughts from the Sea.

Arnold, Bahler Dead; Rugby Chapel.

Drama:

Shakespeare, Macbeth; Twelfth Night; Henry V.

Goldsmith, She Stoops to Conquer.

Sheridan, The Rivals.

Fiction:

George Eliot, Silas Marner; Mill on the Floss.

Dickens, Tale of Two Cities; Hard Times.

Other prose:

Macaulay, Warren Hastings or Lord Clive.

Huxley, Autobiography and Lay Sermons.

Bryce, Promoting Good Citizenship. (*See* Riverside Essays.)

Fuess, Selected Essays.

Van Dyke, Spirit of America; Americanism of Washington.

Ross, Latter Day Saints and Sinners.

Jordan, Life's Enthusiasms; The Call of the Twentieth Century; The Call of the Nation; The Strength of Being Clean.

Roosevelt, True Americanism.

Speeches on American citizenship:

Grady, The New South.

Schurz, True Americanism.

Hay, American Love of Peace.

Root, The Pan American Spirit. (For the above, see Boardman's Modern American Speeches.)

Lincoln, Cooper Institute address, Gettysburg address.

Schurz, The Life of Lincoln.

Webster, first Bunker Hill oration; Adams and Jefferson; Plymouth oration.

Conferences on current literature and current plays.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made.

Fiction:

Allen, James L., The Kentucky Cardinal.

Burnett, Frances, T. Tembaron, Through One Administration.

Churchill, Coniston, Mr. Crewe's Career.

Crawford, Saracinesca, Mr. Isaacs, A Roman Singer.

Farnol, Geoffrey, The Broad Highway, The Amateur Gentleman.

Harrison, Queed, V. V.'s Eyes.

Hawthorne, Marble Faun.

Holmes, Elsie Venner.

Howells, A Modern Instance, The Minister's Charge.

Hutchinson, The Happy Warrior.

Johnston, Mary, To Have and to Hold, Prisoners of Hope.

Kipling, Kim, The Light that Failed.

Locke, Septimus.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made—Continued.

Fiction—Continued.

Loti, Pierre, An Iceland Fisherman.
Page, Thomas N., Red Rock.
Parker, The Seats of the Mighty, The Right of Way.
Steele, On the Face of the Waters
Van Dyke, The Blue Flower.

Short stories:

Aldrich, Thomas B., Marjorie Daw, Goliath.
Bunner, Henry, Short Sixes.
Cable, George W., Old Creole Days.
Clemens (Mark Twain), The Jumping Frog, A Double-Barreled Detective Story.
Davis, Richard Harding, Gallagher and other Stories, Van Bibber.
Deland, Margaret, Old Chester Tales.
Dunbar, P. L., Folks from Dixie.
Garland, Hamlin, Main Traveled Roads.
Harris, Joel C., Tales of the Home Folks.
Henry, O., The Four Million, The Voice of the City.
Harte, Bret, The Luck of Roaring Camp.
Hawthorne, The Great Stone Face, Mosses from an Old Manse.
Irving, Rip Van Winkle, Legend of Sleepy Hollow.
Jewett, Sarah Orne, A White Heron and Other Stories.
Kelly, Myra, Little Citizens.
Page, Thomas N., Marse Chan, Me Lady.
Poe, Edgar Allen, The Purloined Letter, The Fall of the House of Usher, Gold Bug.
Stockton, Frank, The Lady or the Tiger.
Stevenson, R. L., Markheim.
Van Dyke, Henry, The Ruling Passion.
Wilkins, Mary, A New England Nun.

Nonfiction:

Barrie, Margaret Ogilvy.
Bennett, How to Live on 24 Hours a Day; The Human Machine; Your United States.
Bryce, The Pleasantness of American Life; National Characteristics as Moulding Public Opinion.
Crothers, Gentle Reader.
Eliot, Education for Efficiency.
Grayson, Adventures in Contentment; Adventures in Friendship.
Grenfell, The Adventure of Life.
Griggs, The Use of the Margin.
James, On Some of Life's Ideals.
Harrison, Choice of Books.
Hearn, Out of the East.
Huxley, Life and Letters of Huxley.
Jordan, The Religion of a Sensible American; The Power of Truth.
Mable, Parables of Life.
Maeterlinck, Treasures of the Humble.
Newman, Definition of a Gentleman.
Roosevelt, The New Nationalism; A Strenuous Life.
Ross, Sin and Society.
Stevenson, A Christmas Sermon.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made—Continued.
Nonfiction—Continued.
Sylva, Carmen, From Memory's Shrine.
Van Dyke, Fisherman's Luck; Little Rivers.
Wagner, The Simple Life.
Howells, London Films.
Prime, I Go A-Fishing.
Riis, Life Stories of the Other Half.
Taft, Present Day Problems.
Wilson, Inaugural Addresses; When a Man Comes to Himself; On Being Human.

GRADE XII.

A. Titles from which selection for class work may be made:
Individual authors:
Chaucer, Prologue to the Canterbury Tales; old English ballads compared with the literary ballad, such as The Ancient Mariner, Scott's Rosabelle, Rossetti's White Ship.
Shakespeare, Hamlet.
Milton, L'Allegro and Il Penseroso; Comus; Lycidas; Paradise Lost, Books 1 and 2; Sonnets: On His Blindness, On Arriving at the Age of Twenty-Three.
Accompanying reading:
The Epic, Beowulf (selections).
The Tale, Chaucer, Knight's Tale; Nun's Priest's Tale.
The drama:
Shakespeare, King Lear.
Marlowe, The Jew of Malta.
Tennyson, Becket.
The song:
Palgrave, Golden Treasury, Books 1 and 2.
The essay:
Bacon, Selected Essays.
The allegory:
Bunyan, Pilgrim's Progress, Part I.
Individual authors:
Addison and Steele, Sir Roger de Coverley Papers.
Goldsmith, The Deserted Village.
Gray, Elegy in a Country Churchyard.
Burns, The Cotter's Saturday Night, Songs.
Wordsworth, Nature lyrics; Sonnets; The Ode to Duty; Michael.
Shelley, The Cloud; The Skylark; Hymn to the Night; Ozymandias of Egypt.
Keats, Eve of St. Agnes; Ode to a Grecian Urn.
Byron, The Coliseum (Childe Harold, Canto IV); Cascata del Marmore (Childe Harold, Canto IV); The Coliseum by Moonlight; "Manfred," Act III, Sc. 4; The Ocean (Childe Harold, Canto IV); The Isles of Greece (Don Juan, Canto III); She Walks in Beauty Like the Night.
Arnold, Requiescat; The Forsaken Merman.
Browning, Evelyn Hope; Prospice; Up at a Villa, Down in a City; Pheidippides.

A. Titles from which selection for class work may be made—Continued.

Individual authors—Continued.

Tennyson, The Miller's Daughter; The Raven; Songs from "The Princess" and other lyrics; Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington.

Lamb, Selected Essays.

De Quincey, Joan of Arc.

Carlyle, Essay on Burns (with emphasis on ethical rather than literary parts).

Macaulay, Essay on Johnson.

Accompanying reading:

Pope, The Rape of the Lock; The Essay on Man (selections).

Goldsmith, The Vicar of Wakefield; She Stoops to Conquer.

Thackeray, Henry Esmond; Vanity Fair; The Newcomes.

George Eliot, Adam Bede; Romola.

Dickens, Bleak House (or any other).

Carlyle, Heroes and Hero Worship (selections).

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made.

Drama:

Bennett and Knoblauch, Milestones.

Brown, Everywoman.

Bulwer-Lytton, Richelieu.

Burnett, The Dawn of a To-morrow.

Galsworthy, Justice; The Pigeon.

Goldsmith, She Stoops to Conquer.

Hauptmann, The Sunken Bell.

Housman and Barker, Prunella.

Ibsen, The Doll's House.

Kennedy, The Servant in the House.

Knoblauch, Kismet.

Loti and Gautier, The Daughter of Heaven.

Maeterlinck, The Blue Bird.

McGroarty, The Mission Play.

Noyes, Drake; Sherwood.

Peabody, The Piper.

Phillips, Ulysses.

Roberts, Pools and Francesca; The Foot of the Rainbow.

Rostand, Cyrano de Bergerac; Chanticleer; L'Aiglon.

Sheridan, The Rival; School for Scandal.

Synge, Riders to the Sea.

Tennyson, Becket.

Van Dyke, The House of Rimmon.

Yeats, The Land of Heart's Desire.

Zangwill, The Melting Pot.

Fiction:

Auerbach, On the Heights.

Austen, Jane, Pride and Prejudice.

Bronte, Charlotte, Jane Eyre; Shirley.

Deland, Margaret, Awakening of Helena Ritchie; The Iron Woman.

De Morgan, Joseph Vance; Alice for Short; Somehow Good.

Dickens, Our Mutual Friend; Nicholas Nickleby; Pickwick Papers.

Eliot, George, Mill on the Floss; Adam Bede; Romola.

Lane, Ellen, Nancy Stair.

B. Titles from which selection for individual reading may be made—Continued.
Fiction—Continued.
Reade, Chas., Put Yourself in His Place.
Trollope, Anthony, Barchester Towers.
Thackeray, Vanity Fair; Henry Esmond; The Newcomes.

C. Suggested Elective Courses:
1. Biography, especially the lives of men in the field of the work of a particular curriculum, e. g., lives of inventors and scientists in a technical curriculum, etc.
2. The works of a single author (not the complete works, as in a college course, but the more important; with his life, his personality, and the social group of which he is a part).
3. "Type" courses, in which a half year is spent on drama, on poetry, on fiction, or the essay, with some consideration of the artistic form.
4. A historical review of English culture, which would include art and music, as well as high points in literature.
5. A historical view of American literature; to sharpen and unify the vague impression left by grammar-school study, and arouse an interest and pride in our national culture. (This course is advisable for academic pupils who read little American literature in lower high-school classes.)
6. Dramatic arts. The reading of plays in "parts," the production of plays or pageants of real value; the supervision of class plays in the school, etc.

D. A course in American literature. (One term.)
List for study:
Poetry: Selected poems of Bryant, Poe, Longfellow, Emerson, Whittier, Holmes, Lowell, Walt Whitman.
The novel:
Hawthorne, The House of the Seven Gables or Marble Faun or
Howells, The Rise of Silas Lapham.
The short story:
Hawthorne, The Great Stone Face; The Ambitious Guest; The Birthmark.
Poe, The Fall of the House of Usher; The Masque of the Red Death; The Gold Bug; Descent into the Maelstrom.
Hale, Man Without a Country.
Bret Harte, The Luck of Roaring Camp.
The essay and address:
Emerson, Behavior; The American Scholar; Self Reliance; Compensation; The Fortune of the Republic.
Lowell, Books and Libraries; Democracy; A Moose-head Journal.
The play:
Peabody, The Piper.
List for reading:
Franklin, Autobiography.
Irving, Sketch Book; Knickerbocker History of New York.
Cooper, Last of the Mohicans.
Lesser poets of the creative period: Aldrich, Bayard Taylor, Buchanan Read, Alice and Phoebe Cary, Holland.
Later poets: Lanier, Bret Harte, Edward Roland Sill, Helen Hunt, Eugene Field, James Whitcomb Riley, Richard Watson Gilder, Edwin Markham.

D. A course in American literature. (One term.)—Continued.

List for reading—Continued.

Short story:

Aldrich, Marjorie Daw.
Jewett, The White Heron.
Wilkins, The Revolt of Mother.
Page, Marse Chan.
Deland, Old Chester Tales.
Bunner, A Sisterly Scheme.
O. Henry, The Four Million.

The essay:

Holmes, Autocrat of the Breakfast Table.
Thoreau, Walden.
Van Dyke, Little Rivers.
Repplier, A Happy Half Century.

The novel:

From best American writers of to-day.

Method:

The course should be taught historically by means of lectures, class study of the most important authors, and much collateral reading in America's literary product.

Poetry. Poems for study should be those not usually read in the grammar schools, unless the well known have a content of growing interest. Examples: Longfellow's Keramos, Amalfi, Morituri Salutamus; Lowell's Commemoration Ode; Emerson's Each and All.

The short story. Develop (1) the characteristics of a successful story; (2) the differences between this and a novel; (3) the various types of short stories; (4) some definite standards of judgment for future use.

The essay. Read mainly to stimulate thought on life.

Make the collateral reading an important part of this course. Have outside reading done on each author studied and on others for whom there is not time for class work. Help toward intelligent, appreciative reading by assigning special topics on the literature read. Occasional recitation periods should be given to oral reports.

Have occasional oral readings from authors not studied in class, especially the best of the later poets.

Put early into the hands of students a classified list of the best American authors, including those of to-day. In every possible way the desire to read should be stimulated.

Sufficient material for such a course may be found in the leaflets of the Riverside Literature Series, but the work will be richer if these are supplemented by a well-equipped school library.

X. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ORAL EXPRESSION.

I. THE GENERAL PURPOSE.

The general purpose of teaching oral expression in the schools is to make possible in the lives of the people an accurate, forceful, living speech which shall be adequate for ordinary intercourse and capable of expressing the thoughts and emotions of men and women in other relations of life. Recognizing the fact that the impulses to converse, to sing, to narrate, to picture, and to portray (mimic and dramatize) are racial traits of long standing, and that the ability to be effective and interesting in these forms of expression is of enduring social importance, it becomes the task of the teacher to provide incentive and occasion for the normal exercise of these impulses, and to free the channels of expression by establishing right habits of thought and by developing the organs of speech. It is likewise natural for man to enjoy in others excellence and skill in speech and portrayal, while the cultivation of the auditory taste and the dramatic sense enhances the enjoyment of these forms of art. Such enjoyment it is the privilege and function of the school to promote.

The fulfillment of this aim involves (1) occasions impelling the pupil to the natural use of his powers of expression, (2) an effective point of view on the part of the teacher, (3) command by the pupil of the elements of effective expression, and (4) cooperation of all teachers in demanding the constant use of good oral expression.

1. Occasions impelling the pupil to the natural use of his powers of expression constitute the key to success in teaching oral expression. The teacher should help the individual pupil to select topics in which he has genuine interest and upon which he has or may secure reasonably accurate knowledge, and to organize his knowledge so that he can present it in an interesting form. The teacher should also arrange the class room and plan the class work so that the pupil will feel that his audience desires to hear what he has to say, and should teach the class to listen closely and to criticize sympathetically and discriminately.

2. An effective point of view on the part of the teacher involves the recognition of writing and speaking as simply two forms of one mental act, and the breaking down of the barrier which, in method of instruction, has been raised between them. Likewise it involves the recognition of the fact that language is, in its origin,

oral; that speech, in spite of the large use made of written language, is still the typical form of expression; and that, because of this, the appeal of language is primarily to the ear, not to the eye. Obviously, then, language instruction gains in effectiveness when based upon the grouping of sounds on the lips of the pupil instead of the writing of words on a page. It is equally apparent that literature takes on a fuller meaning when it can appeal to a cultivated auditory sense. As in the elementary school oral language work is the natural preliminary to written work from the necessity of learning to speak before learning to write, so in the high school constant oral practice should precede, or at least accompany, written exercises in order to preserve the essential and vital forms of language.

3. The command by the pupil of the elements of effective expression involves the teaching of the principles underlying both written and oral expression. The pupil should be made to realize that all conversation is composition; that, after all, writing is but the record of good talking, and that his habits of speech and of writing can each be made to reinforce each other. Instruction in oral expression then shares with instruction in written language responsibility for the vocabulary, for the correct application of the rules of grammar, for the correct use of words separately and in combination, and for the observance of the rhetorical rules for unity, coherence, emphasis, and general effectiveness.

In addition, instruction in oral expression must include drill on the phonetic elements of language, the establishment of a competent voice, the mobilization of the organs of speech, and the attainment of the ready cordination of mind and tongue.

4. The cooperation of all teachers in demanding the constant use of good oral expression is essential. To expect the English classroom alone to neutralize the bad habits of speech acquired in the home and on the street is unreasonable. In so far as teachers in all departments do not demand good expression from their pupils or fail in their own speech to use good English, the school harbors an influence that directly undermines the work of the English teacher. The practice of requiring topical recitations in all subjects that admit of that method, and complete answers to many questions in all subjects, furnishes natural and worthy exercises in speech, and at the same time reacts favorably upon the work in every classroom and constitutes a simple means of developing the power of sustained effort in thinking.

II. THE IMMEDIATE AIMS.

The immediate classroom aims of teaching oral expression may be summed up under the ability: (1) To answer questions intelli-

gently and fully; (2) to converse agreeably; (3) to collect and organize material for oral discourse; (4) to present effectively in a natural environment material already organized; (5) to join courteously and pertinently in informal discussion; (6) to read aloud in such a way as to present the writer's thought and spirit; and, (7) for those who have, or hope to develop, qualities of leadership, the ability to address an audience, or to conduct a public meeting.

III. THE ACTIVITIES IN ORAL EXPRESSION.

The activities that lead to the accomplishment of these aims may be broadly grouped under three heads—physical, intellectual, and emotional. These activities, however, connect at so many points and often blend so completely that no attempt will be made to articulate the exercises along these lines.

MECHANICS OF ORAL EXPRESSION.

1. *Breathing* is a mechanical process which is best cared for in the classes by physical exercise. In schools where there are no gymnasium classes, a few minutes of deep breathing, with the windows open and the pupils standing erect with heads thrown well back, will contribute to the health of the pupils and to their preparation for good vocalization.

2. *Vocalization.*—With the unscientific theories of voice production and voice development that have prevailed in the past, it has been practically impossible to secure helpful results from classroom work where lack of time permitted only unison practice. The latest findings of science, however, throw new light upon the way the organs produce sound, and how they should be used to produce the best results. A few simple exercises in vocalization, continued through the grades, will help to produce full resonance and to overcome the unquestioned harshness of the American voice.

3. *Posture and gesture.*—Along with the exercises in breathing a simple system of calesthenics can be used that will induce grace and freedom of movement in bodily action. Exercises calculated to develop bodily response to thought and feeling, in reading, reciting, or speaking to an audience, should be accompanied by explanation of the interpretative meaning of simple pose and gesture.

4. *Phonetics.*—Instruction in phonetics and diacritical marks should accompany the physical exercises of the ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades. Much practice should be given in pronouncing words singly and in combination, followed by sustained effort at clear and pleasing expression of thought. The exercises that most successfully combine these drills are: Oral reading, declamation and recitation, and dramatics.

Oral reading.—Oral reading is an exercise that can be profitably employed at all stages in elementary and high schools. Not only does it permit of the application of all the principles of expression and afford exercise for the voice and organs of articulation but it tends to impress upon the mind the meaning of words and the structure of sentences and paragraphs. Reading that aims to be audible, natural, and expressive, if practiced regularly through a series of years, will benefit all branches of English study. Especially in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, reading aloud should be given a large place. The choicest passages from the masterpieces used for study and selections from great fiction, poetry, oratory, and drama make good material for these exercises.

Recitation and declamation.—The practice of memorizing passages of good literature and giving them vocal interpretation in public, though much less in vogue than formerly, still has its place when following thorough instruction and practice in reading aloud. All the advantages that accrue to English study from reading aloud follow likewise from the practice of memorizing and repeating selections from the masterpieces. Such exercises, wisely conducted, besides providing practice in addressing public audiences, give large meaning and interest to the study of great poetry. Care should be taken, however, to avoid encouraging an artificial and exaggerated delivery.

Dramatics.—To turn the pupil's interest in the drama into a love for the beautiful in art and the best things in life is a purpose worthy of the schools. If this aim be achieved to any extent, it must come through guiding the pupils to an intelligent enjoyment of acted plays and such semidramatic entertainments as operas, pageants, festivals, moving pictures, etc., and through helping them to see, in both the acted and the printed play, whatever makes it of enduring value. The teacher can do for the pupils what the drama league is trying to do for the public generally.

Along with the practice of acting for the broad cultural purpose of appreciation of the dramatic values, desired results may be obtained in the development of taste and facility in oral expression. Some teachers employ the dramatic method in the study of Shakespeare by having the plays acted in whole or in part by the class, and in the study of dramatic poetry and prose fiction by dramatizing scenes and acting them. Such exercises afford excellent practice in the arts of speech.

The class play and the school play have come to occupy an important place among school activities. A large number of excellent plays, both standard and academic, have been found worthy of being used in this connection.

Conversation.—In the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, groups of from 5 to 10 pupils should be organized as conversation groups. The teachers should introduce familiar and dignified topics and insist on language that is clear and correct.

Extemporaneous speech.—Talks in which the thought has been carefully prepared and in which the thought as well as the language and form of address are given attention and criticism by the class should be arranged for, especially in the later years of the high-school course. Among the different projects that may be successfully employed for such exercises are: Reports upon current topics, relation of personal experience, story telling, speeches of presiding officers, after-dinner speeches, and reports upon supplementary reading, etc. To make this work of the largest value the principles of arrangement should be insisted on throughout.

Debate.—Instruction and practice in debating can be made of large value in teaching English. It gives occasion for intense mental effort in analysis and encourages effective expression as do few other exercises. Debates organized by class teams with uncommitted arguments, before the school or club and occasionally in public, if carefully supervised by competent teachers, are of value. Care should be taken to secure accurate information, clear thinking, natural expression, and a reasonable attitude toward opponents. The social value of this exercise, with its lessons of mutual dependence and helpfulness, is an important by-product.

The formal address or oration was once used extensively as a rhetorical exercise and for the commencement program, but has given way to a considerable extent to the less formal speech. It is still useful, however, as a supplement to the other form, especially when occasions can be utilized that will give a special significance to the utterance. National and State holidays, birthdays of poets and famous men, or other special occasion, afford suitable opportunities for such exercises. This form of exercise should come late in the course and should be carefully supervised to secure dignified treatment of worthy themes.

IV. WORK BY GRADES.

GRADE VII.

ACTIVITIES:

1. *Vocalization* in unison, in soft, even, resonant tones, beginning with a hum and developing the syllables beginning with m, n, l, and ending with e, o, a, viz:
   mē-mē-mē, nē-nē-nē, lē-lē-lē, etc.
   Restrict pitch to three or four tones in the middle voice.
   Use simple songs to develop flexibility.
2. *Vowel* practice in conjunction with vocalization to establish the correct quality for the vowel sounds.

ACTIVITIES—Continued.

3. *Articulation* practice at frequent intervals, to secure completeness and distinct utterance.
4. *The speech defects* of individuals should be carefully tabulated and the proper exercises prescribed.
5. *Oral reading* for the proper grouping of words, with instruction in management of voice in inflection and emphasis.
6. *Memorizing* appropriate selections in prose and verse.
7. *Oral composition.*—(*a*) Projecting the substance and organization of composition, talking it. (*b*) Memorizing and reciting of written composition. (*c*) Speaking from a prepared outline. Subjects: Narrative. Reproduction of stories told to pupils. Variation method in retelling. The variation called for should be in choice of words and the arrangement of words and phrases in sentences. Stories from outline furnished by the teacher. Stories outlined by pupils, then retold. Stories begun by teacher and completed by pupils.

ATTAINMENT:

Reading that can be distinctly understood by the class with books closed.
Oral composition with a fair degree of fluency and coherence.

NOTE.—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization, and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.

GRADE VIII.

ACTIVITIES:

1. *Vocalization*, same as in seventh grade, extending the practice to all combinations of consonant and vowel sounds, and extending the range of pitch to one octave.
2. *Articulation*, practice same as in seventh grade.
3. *Speech defects* studied as in the seventh grade.
4. *Oral reading* continued, with emphasis laid on smoothness and flow of sentences.
5. *Memorized selections* recited before the class. These may be either prose or poetry. Attention should be given to avoiding a singing effect.
6. *Posture* corrected to secure erectness and graceful pose.
7. *Oral composition*, as in the seventh year. Stories told by teacher, based on models. Emphasis laid on variety of sentence length, form, and structure.

ATTAINMENT:

Reading to which the class listens with pleasure with books closed.

NOTE.—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization, and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.

GRADE IX.

ACTIVITIES:

1. *Vocalization*, same as in eighth grade.
2. *Pronunciation* of words containing commonly misused sounds, as—
   (*a*) oi sounds; e. g., oil, voice, etc.
   (*b*) aw sounds; e. g., saw, draw, etc.
   (*c*) ing endings.
   (*d*) other sounds misused in the locality.
3. *Enunciation* of words that are commonly slurred, as in "had to" and in "would have," etc.

ACTIVITIES—Continued.

4. *Posture.* Instruction and practice in poise and simple movements for expression.
5. *Memorized selections,* prose or poetry, delivered before the school or class, stress on phrasing, emphasis, and some dramatic effectiveness.
6. *Oral composition.* (*a*) Exposition on current events; clearness emphasized. (*b*) Reproduction of (1) scenes from books read, (2) myths, Bible stories, fables, etc., emphasis laid on coherence.
7. *Oral reading.* (*a*) Poetry, with proper phrasing and emphasis to avoid singing effect. (*b*) Prose, conversations with some dramatic effect.

ATTAINMENT:

Intelligent interpretative reading and recital of simple prose and poetry. Voice pleasing. Utterance distinct and reasonably accurate.

The habit of answering in complete sentences in all recitations.

NOTE.—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.

GRADE V.

ACTIVITIES:

1. *Correction of speech defects.* Rapid utterance, incorrect movement of tongue, rigid lips, slight movement of lower jaw, etc. Exercises for private practice to overcome defects.
2. *Phonetics.* A study of the vowel and consonant sounds of the English language, and practice in producing these sounds separately and in combination. Particular attention to pupils who lisp or have a foreign accent.
3. *Pronunciation.* Instruction in syllabification, and accent. Classification of common errors. Drill in difficult vowels and words commonly mispronounced.
4. *Training the ear.* By calling attention to pleasant and unpleasant effects in connection with work in phonetics, pronunciation, voice culture, oral reading, and speaking.
5. *Cultivation of the voice.* Continued exercises for resonance and range of voice. This can be carried on in connection with work in phonetics, reading, and oral composition.
6. *Oral reading.* Relating utterance to thought through grouping, inflection, pauses, and emphasis. Portions of the prose and poetry used in literature study of the class are available.
7. *Posture and action.* Instruction and practice in posture and action in connection with delivery of selections and dramatization.
8. *Delivery of memorized selections.* Practice in conveying an author's thought to an audience, securing and holding the attention of an audience. Attention should be given to rate of utterance, force, pitch, and quality of voice.
9. *Dramatization.* Analysis of character, relation of one character to another, interpretation of character, stage business, dramatization of scenes from Silas Marner, Browning's poems, Shakespeare's plays, or other literature that is studied by the class.
10. *Oral composition.* Well pronounced sentences should be required for all oral recitations. Class conversations, stories, experiences, reports, extemporaneous speeches, on subjects drawn from the literature study, correlated studies, school affairs, current events. Emphasis should be laid upon complete paragraphs and a coherent arrangement.

ATTAINMENT:

The ability to talk coherently in conversation, recitation, and speech.

The ability to render simple selections distinctly, interestingly, and with simple, natural interpretative action.

NOTE.—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization, and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.

GRADE XI.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Exercises in phonetics, pronunciation, correction of speech defects, cultivation of voice, and ear training to be continued from the tenth grade.
2. Oral reading and delivery of memorized selections. Selections to be studied for the appropriate interpretation of the various literary types; the lyric, the dramatic monologue, the essay, etc. The literature studied in this grade will be found available for exercises.
3. Physical response or action. Instruction in appropriate bodily response to thought, gesture. Kinds of gestures, their use and abuse. Exercises for spontaneous response.
4. Dramatization. The simple dramatization of scenes from the literature studied in this grade. The study of Shakespearean dramas and the presentation of important scenes by the members of the class. The study of the contemporary drama, with discussions. The presentation by a selected cast of classical and popular dramas.
5. Oral composition. Extemporaneous speaking on topics assigned in advance and impromptu speaking on questions of school and local interest. Instruction in speech organization. Debate. Instruction as to (*a*) Statement of question. (*b*) Definition of terms. (*c*) Distinction between assertion and proof. (*d*) The nature of evidence, debating between members of the class, divided into teams, on questions of local interest and simple questions of State or national interest.
6. Public speaking. While the class will furnish the audience for much of the speaking practice, public occasions should be arranged for, where those preparing themselves for work that calls for public speech will have opportunity, after careful preparation, of speaking in public.
7. Vocabulary. Emphasis should be laid upon the importance of extending the vocabulary by looking up words not well understood, by keeping a notebook for desirable words, and by the study of synonyms, antonyms, and idioms.

ATTAINMENT:

The ability to interpret simple specimens of the different literary types. For those planning to become public speakers, the ability to address effectively a class, club, or other group, on simple topics.

NOTE.—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization, and the drama see the report on literature for this grade.

GRADE XII.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Exercises in phonetics, pronunciation, correction of speech defects, voice and ear training should be continued for pupils who have special need of it.
2. Physical response to thought and feeling studied in professional speakers and actors. Habits of gesture and facial expression that are in force. Thought should be developed.

ACTIVITIES—Continued.

3. *Oral reading and delivering memorized selections.*—Aside from the literature prescribed for this grade, the great orations and poems furnish material for interpretation.
4. *Dramatization.*—The reading and discussion of some of the best of the contemporary dramas, with a view to presentation of one or more of these by a selected cast.
5. *Oral composition.*—Debating continued, as in the eleventh grade, with the emphasis upon a logical development of the thought, the presentation of satisfactory evidence, and interesting delivery. Planning speeches for particular occasions; *e. g.*, social occasions, introduction of speakers, after-dinner talks, gift presentations; business occasions, explaining a business proposition, soliciting cooperation, a lawyer's plea, etc.
6. *Orations.*—The memorizing and delivery of carefully prepared compositions on important themes from political or industrial life, or from literature. Instruction in choosing subjects and illustrations within the experience of the audience. Consideration of the elements of interest and how to avoid digression and tediousness. Relation between speaker and audience.
7. *Vocabulary.*—Continued emphasis upon the necessity of acquiring an ample vocabulary.
8. *Parliamentary practice.*—Instruction and practice in parliamentary procedure.

ATTAINMENT:

The ability to address an audience effectively and to make a graceful speech for school occasions.

The ability to preside satisfactorily at meetings of a class or club.

NOTE.—For materials for reading aloud, classics for dramatization, and the drama, see the report on literature for this grade.

XI. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON BUSINESS ENGLISH.

The movement for business English is too important and widespread to be overlooked. At the same time, the subject is so new, practice is so diverse, and opinions concerning the matter are so confused, that the time has not yet come for a definite formulation of a course in business English. This report will therefore be confined chiefly to a statement of the principles that should govern the construction of such courses in individual schools.

At present the amount of time devoted to business English varies greatly. One extreme is represented by those schools in which the pupils in commercial curriculums receive exactly the same training in English as the other pupils. The principals and teachers in these schools say that "English is English" and that by teaching their boys and girls to read and write and speak they are preparing them for business life. On the other hand, very few high schools devote more than two years to business English, and but few of their syllabi show any profound influence of the vocational point of view. The general practice in schools that make this differentiation seems to be to give one or two years, usually toward the close of the high-school period, to commercial correspondence. Occasionally this appears as an elective in addition to the regular English courses.

This variation in the time allotted to business English arises from different conceptions of the purpose of such a course. Only two such conceptions seem to the commitee to be tenable; namely, (1) that this course is a part of the general preparation that all pupils should receive, and (2) that it should be a direct preparation for specific vocations. This report will adopt the second point of view and treat business English as part of the training for commercial occupations. Far from minimizing the importance of the other point of view, the committee approves the incorporation of business English in the work of other curriculums, but it thinks that the conduct of such instruction is satisfactorily covered by the principles enunciated in the reports of the other subcommittees.

The vocational phases of vocational curricula have two chief aims: (1) The direct preparation for specific vocational activities and (2) the development of general intelligence and adaptability to changing conditions in the business or industrial world. In choosing the content of instruction in composition and literature for business English classes these aims must be kept constantly in mind. The

fact that this course is to be a direct preparation for specific vocations should determine the degree of emphasis upon certain details, even upon certain forms; and the degree of adaptability necessary, because of ever-present rapid change in the commercial and industrial conditions of modern life, requires the avoidance of over-specialization and formalism.

A corollary of the vocational point of view is that a vocational curriculum should contain, among other things, work dealing directly with the future vocation, and other studies taught with constant reference to that vocation from which they will derive their meaning and motive. For business English, then, even more than for the other English classes, choice and emphasis of subject matter must be fitted to the particular class. The teacher must keep in close touch with commercial life and with the present activities and future plans of the pupils. If it is possible to separate bookkeepers, salesmen, and stenographers, adjustment to actual needs may be made much closer than it could otherwise be.

Oral composition should have as large a share of the time here as in any English class. It is only the stenographer for whom business is chiefly a matter of writing, and the language sense that stenography requires may be very successfully cultivated through oral exercises. Oral composition may be made also to contribute very large to the development of personality, which is the chief key to larger success in both commerce and the professions. Even such elements of personality as the voice may be cultivated here with immense profit, both vocational and social.

Commercial subject matter for oral composition is plentiful. Sales talks, reports upon commercial activities, debates, free conversation upon business situations and ethics will be interesting to the pupils, and are certainly as good material for training in the efficient use of the mother tongue as can be found.

The chief objection urged against oral composition is that it is likely to degenerate into a "talkfest" in which principles are forgotten and the pupils gain nothing. Probably there is no subject so well fitted as business topics to compel attention to the principles of effective speech. Moreover, for many who take this course free conversation in an atmosphere that makes all eager to appear at their best, and therefore careful of their language, is highly profitable even when it is not accompanied by direct teaching.

Written composition.—In written composition the business letter will naturally receive much emphasis. Care should be taken not to emphasize form more than content. By refusing to consider any business letter that is incorrect in any detail of the accepted form the teacher will be free to devote his attention to the thought and its clear expression. Assignments should be of the nature of prob-

lems presenting the elements of actual business situations that bo and girls can understand and calling for the exercise of tact a judgment.

Commercial correspondence is one of the most important phases of instruction in composition, and yet it is one that most teachers of English dislike and in which frequently the poorest results are obtained. The great danger is the stereotyped formalism to which the customary emphasis of the types of letters is so likely to lead. Here, as elsewhere, to ask children to follow a ready-made rule or blindly to use a mature model is to court disaster. Let the problem be within the real comprehension of the pupils; let the solution be sought through common sense and the principles of composition worked out by the class, and there will be no complaints of ennui on account of the monotony of the work. The class may be divided into groups and actual correspondence set up, the writers really trying to get the readers to take definite action, just as they would in business. By means of carbons each may send out half a dozen letters. His rivals for business may do the same. Thus each member of the class will in his incoming mail have several appeals, from among which he must choose. Thus a genuine test of the selection of material, clearness, and force is furnished by the success of one plea where another failed. In such competition pupils will welcome all aids to expression.

Besides business letters, the written composition may include reports on commercial and industrial subjects, writing of advertisements with the emphasis on the English rather than on the display form, and composition of the newspaper or prospectus type. The essay, for which few have much use in later life, has little place in the commercial curriculum.

In the English classes for two-year vocational pupils, especially in those for stenographers, form must be emphasized and most of the time given to drill. But drill need not, must not, be a dull grind. Much that would be merely mechanical for pupils with other vocational aims may be tolerated here if handled with vigor and speed, yet the pupil's use of the form in accomplishing some end of his own choosing is the surest means of permanent acquisition. At all events, this emphasis upon form and drill must not be so mechanical as to permit slipshod thinking or inattentiveness. The business man prefers the stenographer who misses a word occasionally to the one who writes a meaningless sentence without question.

Undoubtedly grammar, spelling, and punctuation must receive a considerable amount of the attention of commercial pupils, but just what details of form should receive most emphasis can not be determined except by reference to the actual needs of persons engaged in the occupations for which the pupils are preparing. These needs

must be determined by scientific investigation. By means of a careful study of the language errors of the children of Kansas City, Prof. Charters has mapped out a course in grammar really adapted to the elementary schools. The same sort of thing needs to be done on the high-school level and in each community, for not all communities have the same needs. Mr. Ayres, in a study of 2,000 business and social letters, found that 720 words make up probably 90 per cent of the words used in ordinary correspondence. His list is most valuable as a core for an elementary-school spelling list, but it does not meet the needs of a commercial department, for the graduates, especially the stenographers, must be familiar with the spelling and use of 99 per cent of the words they will meet in their first year at work. Clearly further investigation is needed.

These investigations are made relatively easy by the fact that actual business letters ordinarily compose most of the dictation given stenographers, and the letters written in intraclass correspondence approximate those which pass through the mails. The material is at hand, there are many models to guide; why should not every school find out what its own needs really are?

Literature.—The views of teachers with regard to the place of literature in this course are widely divergent. In many schools, even high schools of commerce, the old college entrance requirements have absorbed the majority of the total time devoted to instruction in English. In others, the study of literature has been reduced to a matter of reading at home of sometimes as few as two or three books in a semester, with single periods for written reports. Again, the difficulty seems to be that we have not agreed upon the purpose of a vocational curriculum.

To prepare directly for vocational activities, pupils ought to have literature that is in the spirit of the present, that has a commercial tang, that treats of the problems and even of the activities and processes that they will meet after leaving school. Adaptability and general intelligence with regard to their vocations can be secured only by a habit of general reading upon special subjects, and this habit can probably be fixed best by the English department. This means a searching of current magazines, a turning over of the biographies of successful men, the reading of books upon salesmanship and kindred topics by the teacher of English in search of general reading for his pupils.

On the other hand, these pupils have the same need as those in other curriculums for standard literature. Literature, well chosen and sanely taught, may be of great assistance in building character and may provide a good antidote for the harmful pleasures that invite the weary workers in our cities.

Perhaps the best compromise between these just claims is to devote most of the class study of literature to the standard works, and to select the home-reading list largely from the vocational literature. This is not to neglect the difference between general and vocational curriculums, even in the class study of the standard literature. Literature is not really assimilated by a pupil until its message comes home to him, until it has been connected with his own life. Shakespeare may really gain most cultural value for boys and girls through their attempt to parallel his characters and situations in modern commercial life. Not only may Julius Cæsar throw light upon salesmanship, but salesmanship may illuminate Julius Cæsar.

XII. GENERAL READING.

The subject of home reading has received attention in each of the subcommittee reports on literature. It seems desirable, however, to supplement these reports with a general statement, partly because of the importance of general reading and partly because it should be thought of as connected with English composition, history, science, industrial arts, etc., as well as with literature. One of the chief marks of the educated man is his habit of wide and intelligent reading of books and magazines in which are reflected a variety of interests. It is the business of the school to educate young people in this sense. Hence definite provision should be made by all high-school faculties for proper lists, library collections, class conferences, time, and credit. Since the teacher of English is in a special sense a professor of books, he may well be expected to take the lead.

Any who doubt the necessity of special attention to the general reading of their pupils should make such an investigation as was recently carried out in the junior and senior high schools of Decatur, Ill. In a report of this investigation made to the National Council of Teachers of English, at New York City, in July, 1916, Supt. Engleman gave the following facts: Eight hundred students in the senior high school and 225 in the eighth grade were questioned. One-fourth of the high-school pupils reported that they did not read the daily papers, not even during the progress of the European war. One hundred and one pupils read no magazines. The others reported a total of 178 different publications. The 25 most popular of these, with the number of readers of each, were as follows:

The Youth's Companion, read by 182 students; The Ladies' Home Journal, 156; Saturday Evening Post, 93; Popular Mechanics, 78; Woman's Home Companion, 72; Pictorial Review, 72; Collier's, 71; Cosmopolitan, 65; American Boy, 59; The Outlook, 59; Life, 47; McCall's, 46; American Magazine, 44; Ladies' World, 44; Literary Digest, 43; Delineator, 38; Woman's World, 36; Scientific American, 31; Everybody's, 30; Puck, 29; Harper's, 28; Good Housekeeping, 28; McClure's, 28; Current Opinion, 27; World's Work, 26.

Three hundred and eighty-three pupils had read no books during the semester not required by the teachers. In the lists of the others appeared 418 different titles, the most popular being "Eyes of the World," read by 17 students. Others most popular are:

Girl of the Limberlost, with 15 readers; Pollyanna, 15; Shepherd of the Hills, 14; Freckles, 12; The Virginian, 11; Inside of the Cup, 10; St. Elmo, 9; Crisis, 8; Lavender and Old Lace, 8; The Winning of Barbara Worth, 8; Little Women, 7.

Ben Hur, Bible, Graustark, Rosary, Their Yesterdays, each with 6. Alger Books, Call of the Wild, Laddie, Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm, and Tom Sawyer, each with 5. Nearly 807 of the books in the list have but one reader each.

Perhaps the most significant thing is the list of titles which do not appear. Dickens had but 4 voluntary readers; Hawthorne, 2; Scott, 2; Kipling, 1; Bulwer-Lytton, 1; Cooper, 2; Victor Hugo, 2; Barrie, 1; Milton, 1; Tennyson, 1; Kingsley, 1; and Shakespeare (*mirabile dictu*) 1; Stevenson, none; George Eliot, none.

From these facts Supt. Engleman concludes that so far the methods in use in the schools have not led to further reading of the works of standard authors. He would, nevertheless, continue instruction in the classics, but would attempt to connect the work with the pupils' present day interests.

The answers of the 225 eighth-grade pupils were equally interesting. About one-fourth of the whole number stated that they read no magazine. Twenty per cent preferred The Youth's Companion. Popular Mechanics came next, with the Ladies' Home Journal third. The Pictorial Review followed with 21 readers, Saturday Evening Post with 16, the National Geographic Magazine, Boys' Life, and American Boy, each with 12, and then with slowly diminishing numbers, McCall's, Woman's World, Collier's, Red Book, Literary Digest, St. Nicholas, The American Magazine, Woman's Home Companion, and the Delineator.

Only 22 of the 225 pupils confessed that they did not read a daily paper regularly. Their good showing was doubtless due to the influence of the course in current events which is a part of the eighth-grade history work in the junior high school.

An inquiry asking the grade students to indicate the lines of reading they do with greatest pleasure brought the following information: One hundred and twenty-four like fiction; 86, stories of invention; 84, current events; 81, nature stories; 57, history; 32, poetry; 15, biography.

The first result might well have been anticipated. The small number with a preference for biography was a surprise. Of the 32 expressing an interest in poetry, only 4 are boys. Thus, in that school at least for every 7 girls who like poetry there is but 1 boy. On the other hand, of the 86 who enjoy stories of invention there are but 14 girls and 72 boys,—five times as many boys as girls.

In the light of this information, Supt. Engleman thinks it pertinent to inquire whether the best results can be obtained from teaching mixed classes of boys and girls of this age when we know that for every seven girls who like poetry there will be but one boy equally pleased. If the boys were segregated and a course for them pre-

scribed including more literature of a practical sort—adventure, inventions, history, biography, and industry—would results be better in the end?

The Decatur schools have well-arranged home-reading lists of books, an account of which will be found in the Journal of Administration and Supervision for 1916. Credit is given for the reading of the books on the list, and this credit is varied with reference to the value of the particular volume. For example, while but four points are allowed for a reading of Kennedy's "The Servant in the House" or "Zangwill's "The Melting Pot," seven points are given for "Henry Esmond" or "Pride and Prejudice," and 10 for Hugo's "Les Miserables." Each student is required to earn a minimum of 10 points by outside reading each semester. The value of this plan is said to consist not merely in the fact that every student must do some independent reading of worth-while books to earn his promotion, but in the added fact that he is made familiar with a list of authors and titles which he may find the inclination to read at his leisure when his course is finished.

It is becoming a somewhat common practice to invite the pupils of the high school to write out briefly their opinions of the books that they read voluntarily. Highly interesting sets of answers have been placed in the hands of the committee by Miss Minnie E. Porter, who gathered material from a group of pupils in a rural district in Kansas; by Mr. C. C. Certain, when in the Central High School of Birmingham, Ala.; by the Department of English in the Manual Training School of Indianapolis, Ind., under the direction of Mr. E. H. K. McComb; by Mr. Max J. Herzberg, of the Central Commercial and Manual Training High School in Newark, N. J.; by Mr. Andrew H. Krug, of the City College of Baltimore, Md.; and by Mr. Allen Abbott, when in the Horace Mann School, Teachers College, Columbia University. These evaluations by pupils are highly illuminating and should be secured from time to time by teachers in all schools. The comment by a girl to the effect that Poe's "The Gold Bug" is a very weird story and she would advise all young people to read this book in the daytime—that it gives one a very uncomfortable feeling if read by night—undoubtedly influenced the members of her class much more than anything that could have been said by the teacher.

It will be found advisable to set apart from time to time a recitation period for informal conference and discussion of the general reading of the pupils. Care should be exercised to avoid formality in these exercises. Written reproductions and reviews will be found, as a rule, ineffective. It is far better to invite free exchange of opinion and advice with the idea that each pupil is helping the

others. This will call out genuine expression and will give the class meeting a vital and really social character. Unless the pupils feel free to report what they actually like, the teacher is not in a position either to understand them or to help them. He can easily be too austere in his judgment, forgetful of the fact that he is dealing with immature persons who have not yet formed a mature taste and who must simply be led to like the best they can understand and appreciate at the stage of progress to which they have arrived.[1]

Certainly, every such class should from time to time compare notes as to daily and weekly newspapers and the magazines. So few modern publishers take any responsibility as to the moral influence of their periodicals that it is a most important duty of the teacher to direct the pupils, both in choosing what they are to read and in reading it with proper discrimination. This is especially true in the larger cities, which are now so often cursed with journals more or less yellow and by a bewildering variety of cheap and more or less sensational magazines.[2]

SOME BOOKS SUGGESTED FOR READINGS ON INDUSTRIAL SUBJECTS.

I. The Woodworking Industries.
II. The Metal-working Industries.
III. Power (electricity, gas and gasoline, and steam).
IV. Books of general industrial interest and others (not falling under the above divisions).

I. THE WOODWORKING INDUSTRIES.

1. *General studies of the industries.*

Bassett, S. W. The story of Lumber. Penn Pub. Co.; Lathrop, Lee & Shepherd.

An interesting story of logging and milling operations.

Kimerly, W. L. How to Know Period Styles in Furniture. Grand Rapids Furniture Record Co.

Written for laymen, is non-technical, and profusely illustrated.

Mills, A. E. The Story of a Thousand Year Pine.

Simons, Constance. English Furniture Designers of the Eighteenth Century.

Brief nontechnical discussions of such schools of furniture design as the Chippendales Brothers Adams, Heppelwhite, and Sheraton.

Wheeler, F. R. The Boy with the U. S. Forester.

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[1] Many schools have found it advisable to put in the hands of each pupil a copy of the home-reading list prepared by a committee of the National Council of Teachers of English. This may be had in quantities at the rate of 60 cents a dozen, carriage prepaid. Address the Secretary of the National Council, Sixth-eighth Street and Stewart Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

[2] See The Undefended Gate, by Prof. F. N. Scott, in the English Journal, 3 : 1, January, 1914.

2. *Technical.*

Levison, J. J. Studies of Trees. John Wiley & Sons.

Written for beginners—A splendid guide to the recognition of trees and woods from the standpoint of the industrial worker.

Moon, F. F., *and* Brown, N. C. Elements of Forestry. John Wiley & Sons.

Readable and reliable. Covers growth of the tree—silvics—forest mensuration, lumbering forest products—wood technology—preservation—forest enemies—and forest areas.

Noyes, William. Wood and Forests. Manual Arts Press.

A handbook of woods and forestry written for students.

Pinchot, Gifford. Primer of Forestry. Washington, Government Printing Office.

Deals with the life of the tree, trees in the forest, the life of the forest, and enemies of the forest.

Roth, Filbert. A First Book of Forestry. Ginn & Co.

Upkeep of forests—Use of the forests—Woods and how to distinguish them—How to distinguish the common trees.

3. *Fiction.*

Burleigh, C. B. All Among the Loggers. Lathrop, Lee & Shepherd.
Grey, Zane. The Young Forester. Harper & Bro.
Lawson, W. P. The Log of a Timber Cruiser.
White, S. E. The River Man. Scribner.
——— Adventures of Bobby Orde. Scribner.
— The Blazed Trail. Scribner.

II. METAL-WORKING INDUSTRIES.

1. *General studies of the industries.*

A. B. C. of Iron and Steel. Cleveland, Penton Pub. Co.

Excellent articles on mining, transportation, and reduction of iron ores; modern commercial steel production; and the organization of steel plants. Well adapted to high-school uses.

Cook, A. O. A Day in an Iron Works. Hodder & Stoughton. (World at Work Series.)
Samuel, E. I. Story of Iron.
Smiles, Samuel. Industrial Biography—Iron Workers and Tool Makers. Houghton Mifflin.

An English publication which traces the early development of the iron industry.

——— The Machinist. Boston, Vocational Bureau.

2. *Technical.*

The Art of Making Tool Steel. Columbia Tool Steel Works. (Pamphlet.)
Lake, E. J. Heat Treatment of Steel. McGraw Hill.

3. *Fiction.*

Samuel, E. The Story of Gold and Silver.
Weir, H. C. Cinders—The Young Apprentice of the Steel Mills. Boston, W. A. Wilde & Co.

From prospecting to the making of bullion into money. Interestingly told.

III. [illegible]R.

1. *General.*

Morgan, A. P. The Boy Electrician. Lathrop.

Includes such subjects as microphones, wireless telephones, transformers, etc. Well illustrated.

One Hundred Years of the Locomotive. (Pamphlet.) Erie, R. R.

Shafer, D. C. Harper's Beginn'ng Electrician. Harper.

Explains what is known of electricity. Gives simple experiments which any boy can do. Also a description of modern uses of electricity.

Thurston. History of the Steam Engine. Appleton.

2. *Technical.*

How to Make Thing Electrical. Modern Pub. Co.

Jackson. Elementary Electricity and Magnetism. Macmillan.

Describes electric lighting, the telephone, and present-day uses of electricity.

Regan, H. C. Locomotives—Simple, Compound, and Electric.

Schneider, N. H. Electric Instruments and Testing. Chamberlain.

——— Power Plants. Chamberlain.

Describes modern electric generating stations.

Sloss. Book of the Automobile. Appleton.

Swoope, C. W. Lessons in Practical Electricity. D. Van Nostrand Co.

Timbie, W. H. The Essentials of Electricity. John Wiley & Sons.

A book for beginners in practical work.

Verrill, A. M. Harper's Gasoline Engine. How the Engine is made—how to run and how to keep in order. Harper.

Whitman, P. B. Motorcycle Principles and the Light Car.

An elementary treatise covering principles underlying operation of motorcycle and light car. Written for beginners.

3. *Fiction.*

Kipling, Rudyard. The Day's Work.

Moffett, Cleveland. Careers of Danger and Daring. Century Co.

Short stories of the fireman and the locomotive engineer.

IV. BOOKS OF GENERAL INDUSTRIAL INTEREST.

1. *Industrial studies.*

Allen, F. J. Business Employment. (Studies by the Vocation Bureau, Boston.) Ginn & Co.

Allen, N. B. Industrial Studies. Ginn & Co.

The Architect. Boston, Vocation Bureau. (Pamphlet.)

Claxton, W. J. Journeys in Industrial England. Harrap-London.

Cook, A. O. A Day with the Leather Workers.

——— A Visit to a Coal Mine. Hodder.

——— A Visit to a Ship Yard. Stoughton.

Dyer, Walter. Early American Craftsmen. Century.

Husband, Joseph. America at Work. Harper.

I. H. C. Service Bureau. Creeds of Great Business Men. International Harvester Co., Chicago.

——— Harvest Scenes of the World. International Harvester Co., Chicago.

Iles, George. Leading American Inventors. Henry Holt.

Knox, D. C. All About Engineering. Cassell & Co.

Maule, H. E. The Boys Book of New Inventions. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Interesting talks on recent inventions.

Price, O. W. The Land We Live In. Small, Maynard.
A study of industries and conservation.

Proctor, H. H. The Making of Leather. Putnam Sons.

Rocheleau, W. F. Great American Industries. A. Flannagan.

Smith, J. R. Industrial and Commercial Geography. Henry Holt & Co.

Squires, Frederick. The Hollow Tiles House. W. T. Comstock Co.

Williams, H. S. Wonders of Modern Science. Funk & Wagnalls.

2. *Technical.*

Baldwin. Steam Heating.

Collins, F. A. Boys Book of Model Aeroplanes. Century Co.

Davis, C. G. Motorboat Building for Boys. Harper.

Duncan. The New Knowledge. A. B. Barnes & Co.
Recent chemical discoveries.

Hayward, Chas. B. Building and Flying an Aeroplane. American School of Correspondence.

Verrill, A. M. Harper's Gasoline Engine. Harper.

3. *Fiction.*

Allen, F. J. Business Employments. Ginn & Co.

Beach, Rex. The Iron Trail.
A book on railroad building in Alaska.

——— The Silver Horde.

——— The Spoilers.

Bond, A. R. Pick, Shovel and Pluck. Scientific American Co.

——— With Men Who Do Things. Scientific American Co.
Answers boy's questions about the great engineering feats of the day.

Connolley, J. B. Out of Gloucester. Scribner.
Stories of deep-sea fishing.

——— The Seiners. Scribner.

Gown and Wheatley. Occupations. Ginn & Co.

Harbottle, John. Finding His Stride. Appleton Co.
Story of a young engineer.

Kipling, Rudyard. Captains Courageous. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Lorimer, G. H. Letters from a Self-made Merchant to His Son. Small, Maynard Co.

Lynde, Francis. Scientific Sprague. Scribner.
Railroad detective stories.

Monroe, Kirk. Gerrick Sterling. Harper.
A story of the mines.

Spearman, F. H. Held for Orders. McClure Co.
Short stories, switcher, dispatcher, master machinist.

Webster, Mervin. Calumet K. Macmillan.
Story of building an elevator in Chicago.

Wheeler, F. R. The Boy with the U. S. Census. Lathrop, Lee & Shepherd.

——— The Boy with the U. S. Survey. Lathrop, Lee & Shepherd.

XIII. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE LIBRARY AND ITS EQUIPMENT.

I. INTRODUCTION.

In preparing this report the committee has followed the lines suggested in the "Report on English equipment," by Mr. Vincil C. Coulter in the English Journal for March, 1913. Our aim has been to supplement his report with such definite recommendations as will aid high-school principals and teachers in reorganizing their school libraries so that they may prove more effective in the English work of to-day. By calling attention to the library needs of the English department and showing how these needs have actually been met in city and township high schools and in small rural high schools we have endeavored to point the way to the introduction of modern library methods that will make for efficiency in even the smaller schools.

As far as possible we have kept in mind the needs of three types of schools:

I. The metropolitan high school	800 to 3,000 pupils.
II. The high school of the town or small city	200 to 800 pupils.
III. The small rural high school	under 100 pupils.

The work of certain high-school libraries in cities and towns in different sections of the country has proved beyond a doubt the value of a carefully selected school library as an aid to the teaching of English. Such a library in charge of a trained librarian can make a distinct contribution to the success of the work in oral English, vocational and moral guidance through English composition, dramatics, debating, and, above all, in the study of standard and contemporary literature along the lines of interpretation and appreciation and the development of a taste for good reading.

In the modern high school, where the more progressive ideals and aims obtain in English work, a school library is as essential for the English department as the science laboratory is for the department of physics, biology, or chemistry. At present much of the work that ought to be done in the school library during the school day under the personal supervision of teacher and school librarian has to be done after school in the rush hours in the public library because the average high-school library is 10 years or more behind the times, is often closed when most needed, and generally lacks proper equipment and expert supervision.

Because we believe that the high-school library within the school building has great possibilities and that it can do an important work

for the pupil which the busy public library can not do for him as he goes out to it after school, we urge united action on the part of teachers of English in behalf of better equipped, better organized, and better administered high-school libraries, with adequate floor space and regular and sufficient appropriations for books and maintenance. These libraries should be open during the entire school day, and pupils with study periods should be given freedom to consult books of reference and use books and magazines in connection with their school work. In many schools the whole atmosphere of the high-school library invites them to browse among the books for pure pleasure, and this frequent dipping into the best books of all kinds is felt in their progress in English. For this reason we urge that greater freedom be given students in the use of the school library than has been customary in the past.

IR THE LIBRARIAN.

A librarian with knowledge of modern library methods is essential in every high-school library, and present conditions make that possible even in many small high schools. Books must be carefully selected, grouped according to a standard method of classification, and together with all other library material, pictures, clippings, pamphlets, lantern slides, etc., must be so catalogued, indexed, or listed as to be available at short notice. Proper means of caring for pamphlets and clippings will make available for English work some up-to-date material that would otherwise be lost.

Whenever possible, the standard for the high-school librarian should be fully as high as that for teachers of English. There should be the same educational qualifications—college graduation, etc.—and the librarian should bring to the work the professional training guaranteed by a full course of one or two years in an approved library school. This is the highest type of training for librarianship, and graduation from such a school usually insures breadth of culture, efficiency, and initiative gained by the comparative study of library methods in schools, colleges, and other institutions besides the public library. This comparative study and the high standard of entrance requirements for these library schools make their graduates especially fitted for the administration of high-school libraries, and distinguish the training from that given in the apprentice course, or training class, of a public library. Such public-library courses train primarily in the methods of a single library and for a lower grade of service—their entrance requirements are much lower than a regular library school.

The successful high-school librarian must be much more than a trained cataloguer and organizer. If she is only this the school

library will be a failure. The personality of the librarian is of the utmost importance. Enthusiasm, personal magnetism, broad sympathies, power to teach and inspire are as essential in the good school librarian as in the good teacher. She must be one who understands boys and girls of high-school age—this is quite a different problem from the work in the children's libraries. Librarians who have merely done technical work, such as cataloging, as a rule are not fitted to undertake high school work. There must be maturity, breadth of culture, and wide interests to enable the librarian to enter intelligently into the work of all departments and cooperate with teachers of all subjects.

For information as to approved library schools giving training in the administration of high-school libraries, also for lists of persons fitted to make successful high-school librarians, write to the chairman of this committee, Miss Mary E. Hall, Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., who as chairman of the National Education Association committee on high-school libraries is in touch with most of the progressive high-school work of the country, or to Mr. Frank K. Walter, chairman of committee on training of school librarians, New York State Library School, Albany, N. Y. Write also to the secretary of your State library commission at your State capital and confer with the librarian of your public library.

For English teachers who are anxious to secure organized modern libraries for their high schools and wish data to submit to school superintendents and boards of education we suggest the following three solutions of the high-school library problem and append a list of references which will contain necessary data and arguments for maintaining the new type of high-school library.

III. THREE FORMS OF HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION.

A. The high-school library under the control of the board of education and an integral part of the high school.

Here the entire expense of maintenance is borne by the board of education, while the librarian is appointed as a member of the faculty and usually has many of the powers of a head of department. With a high standard of qualifications for the librarian, adequate appropriations for maintenance, and close cooperation with the public library this plan secures the fullest freedom for the development of the school library according to the needs of each high school. The problems of the school library have more in common with the college library than with the public library, and this plan admits more easily of the adaptation of library methods to the needs of the school. The success of this type of library depends upon the school board's intelligent appreciation of the function of the high-school

library, proper care in selecting the librarian, and freedom given to the librarian to develop the library.

Examples of this type of library are: The 23 high-school libraries in New York City; high-school libraries of Albany, N. Y.; Hartford, Conn.; William Penn High School, Philadelphia; Spokane, Wash.; Detroit and Grand Rapids, Mich.; Los Angeles, Cal.; Newark and East Orange, N. J.; Newton Technical High School, Newtonville, Mass.; Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio; High Schools of Oakland, Cal.

B. The high-school library under joint control of the board of education and the public library, or as a branch of the public library.

In many cities and towns where otherwise an up-to-date high-school library would be out of the question this plan has proved of great value. As a rule, the board of education and public library share the expense—room, light, heat, furniture, and equipment being furnished by the board of education, and books, periodicals, binding, and supplies furnished by the public library. The salary of the librarian may be paid jointly by the board of education and the public library, or by either body separately. Where the library is under joint control, the board of education and the public library usually set up a high standard of qualifications and salary in order to insure a librarian equal to the high-school teachers in culture and training. When it is a regular branch of a public library, the librarian is a member of the public-library staff rather than of the school faculty.

The success or failure of this plan depends so much upon the librarian of the public library and his consideration of special high-school needs that local conditions must always determine its feasibility. Where conditions are favorable, it means economical and efficient buying of books and supplies, rebinding, etc. The librarian of the public library often has a larger vision of the possibilities of the high-school library than the school authorities and can better select the right librarian. Its disadvantages are that its administration must conform to that of other branches and there is slight opportunity to make the changes that school work often demands. Present public-library salaries make it difficult to secure the proper college men and women. If the general public are admitted to the high-school branch, there is a distinct loss to the students unless a reading room is provided that is selective in its book collection and does not include the "best seller" and the mediocre. If a librarian must divide her time between the students and the general public, the students are likely to have less of that personal guidance which the high-school librarian ought to give.

Examples of successful high-school branches of public libraries are found in Cleveland, Ohio; Passaic, N. J.; Kansas City, Mo.; Somerville, Mass.; Madison, Wis.; Portland, Oreg.; Tacoma, Wash.; Pittsburgh, Pa.; Chicago, Ill.

C. The high-school library with a trained librarian giving part-time service.

For the small high school where neither of the above plans is possible the following suggestions are made:

That the teacher or librarian in charge of the school library take a six-weeks' course in library methods. Such courses are given in the summer in almost every State under the auspices of the State library commission, the State library, State university, or the State normal schools. In Minnesota a six-weeks' course in library methods is required for all school librarians. Teachers who have charge of school libraries in that State must have this training and also be given a light teaching schedule to insure time for proper care of the library.

In States where many of the high-school teachers are normal-school graduates those who have had required courses in library methods in a normal school should be thoroughly competent to conduct the small high-school library along modern lines. This has meant better administration of high-school libraries in Kansas. Many normal schools in addition to their regular courses give summer training to teachers in simple library methods. This is done in Michigan. The small rural high school should be able to secure advice at any time from the normal-school librarian.

For the small town which can not afford a trained librarian in its public library the "Wisconsin idea" is suggested. The board of education and the public library combine, and a librarian is appointed to serve the school library a part of the school day and the public library certain hours of the afternoon and evening. An example of the Wisconsin plan is to be found in the Deerfield-Shields High School, Highland Park, Ill.

REFERENCES ON THE MODERN HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY.

Bardwell, Darwin L. The modern high school. Educational Review, April, 1915.

Contains an excellent plea for a good school library. Tribute to the library as an important factor in high-school work.

——— Report on high-school libraries in New York City. *In* Maxwell, W. H. Sixteenth annual report of the city superintendent of schools. Special report on high schools, 1914. New York City, Department of Education, 500 Park Avenue. p. 43–50.

Contains summary of duties of a librarian, tentative budget for schools of 1,000, 2,000, and 3,000 pupils, equipment and supplies needed, list of periodicals, outlines for eight lessons on use of library, etc.

Breck, Emma J. The efficient high-school library. English Journal, 5: 10–19, January, 1916.

Certain, C. C. Status of the library in Southern high schools. Library Journal, 40: 632–637, September, 1915.

Fay, Lucy E. Development of the library in the high schools of the South. Library Journal, 42: 234–237, March, 1917.

Hall, Mary E. Development of the modern high-school library. Library Journal, 40: 627–632, September, 1915.

——— Vocational guidance through the library. American Library Association, 1914. 10 cents.

Hargreaves, R. T. The possibilities of the high-school library. *In* National Education Association. Proceedings, 1915. p. 730–734.

Illinois Association of Teachers of English. Investigation of the equipment actually available in the high schools of the State. English Journal, 4: 477–479, September, 1915.

Judd, Charles H. The school and the library. *In* National Education Association. Proceedings, 1910. p. 1026–1030.

Keyes, Rowena K. How we use our school library. English Journal, 3: 86–93, February, 1914.

Describes the use of the library by the English department.

The library in the school. Dial, 40: 73–77, February 1, 1906.

Excellent plea for larger rooms and better equipment for the high-school library as the English teachers' laboratory.

Library service in the schools and qualifications of school librarians. Library Journal, 39: 692, 1914.

Statement adopted by the National Council of Teachers of English and the American Library Association.

National Education Association. Report of the Committee on High-School Libraries. *In* Proceedings, 1912. p. 1273–1281.

Summarizes results of investigation of conditions in 60 cities giving recommendations for betterment.

——— Report of Committee on High-School Libraries. *In* Proceedings, 1914 to date.

New York Library Association. Report of the Committee on High-School Libraries. New York Libraries, 3: 182–184, 1912.

Reviews recent progress.

Newberry, Marie A. A normal budget for the high-school library. *In* National Education Association. Proceedings, 1914. p. 817–820.

Ward, Gilbert O. The high-school library. 1915. Chicago, American Library Association Publishing Board, 78 East Washington Street. 10 cents. (Pamphlet.)

One of the best and most recent authorities on the high-school library. Contains excellent bibliographies.

Warren, Irene. Some high-school problems of interest to teachers. White Plains, N. Y., 1915. (The Wilson Bulletin, 1: 19–23, March, 1916.)

Williams, Sherman. High-school library problems. New York Libraries, 4: 174–178, February, 1915.

Plea of a State superintendent of school libraries for better choice of books, larger appropriations, etc.

Wisconsin idea in library cooperation. New York Libraries, 3: 130, 1912.

Outlines plan for small high-school libraries.

For a complete list of references on the high-school library see the following:

Davis, E. M. Library aids for teachers and school librarians. H. W. Wilson Co., White Plains, N. Y. 10 cents.

The Wilson Bulletin, June, 1916. H. W. Wilson Co. 5 cents.

HIGH-SCHOOL BRANCHES OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

Askew, Sarah B. Public libraries and school libraries. Library Journal, 37: 363–366, 1912.

The New Jersey plan.

Ayres, Leonard P. The public library and the public school. Cleveland, 1916. (Cleveland Foundation Survey.) 25 cents.

Jones, T. L. What the public library can do for the high school. Public Libraries, 17: 274–276, July, 1912.

A high-school principal's view of the plan adopted in Madison, Wis.

McKnight, Elizabeth B. The high-school branch. (Modern library economy as illustrated by the Newark Public Library.) White Plains, N. Y., H. W. Wilson, 1913. 50 cents.

Excellent plan of room and equipment and description of service rendered to English department.

White, Elizabeth. The high-school library as a branch of the public library. Library Journal, 41: 630–631, July, 1916.

Wood, Harriet A. Administration of high-school libraries as branches of public libraries. Library Journal, 30: 659, September, 1914.

Wright, Purd B. High-school branches in Kansas City. Library Journal, 30: 673–76, 1914.

IV. THE LIBRARY ROOM OR ROOMS.

The library room should be sufficiently large to accommodate all students who may need to use library books during any study period. In all schools that can possibly afford the space this room should be distinct from the study hall, although the study hall should be near it. In small schools of a few hundred pupils the library reading room may serve as a study hall as well as library, as in the high school of the School of Education, Chicago University, where the trained librarian supervises the study of pupils.

In the larger high schools provision should be made for a seating capacity of 100 to 200 persons and shelf room for from 10,000 to 20,000 books, as in the Boys' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., and the Hutchinson High School, Buffalo, N. Y. From 5,000 to 8,000 volumes carefuly selected make a good working library, if the school is not unusually large.

Libraries in schools of from 800 to 1,000 pupils should seat from 50 to 80 pupils at a time and shelve from 5,000 to 8,000 volumes. Even in schools of from 200 to 300 pupils we find library reading rooms in charge of librarians who can devote their time to the library and who have had some training, often a six-weeks course. In these more progressive small high schools the seating capacity is from 30 to 40 persons and shelf room is provided for 3,000 or more volumes. Examples of small high schools with reading rooms well equipped and in charge of librarians with some training are Ypsilanti, Mich.; Wausau, Wis.; Orange, Cal.

The library room, its furniture, and equipment should be planned by a librarian familiar with approved plans and fittings of a modern library. If the school librarian is untrained, help should be secured from the librarian of the public library or the State library commission. This should not be left entirely to architects or principals unfamiliar with library standards.

Shelving should be low—the top shelf being within the reach of the average pupil. Locked cases and glass doors should be avoided. Tables seating six or eight pupils are preferable to larger ones. One of the most important pieces of furniture in the modern high school is the "vertical file" or set of drawers of uniform size in which clippings, pictures, pamphlets, etc., can be arranged alphabetically by subject in dictionary order. Provision should be made for filing lantern slides, post cards, and mounted maps in the library; also for keeping Victrola records and manufacturers' exhibits for exposition work in English. Exhibit cases, such as those in the Passaic high school, N. J., are suggestive to those planning a high-school library room. It is in the line of efficiency and economy to make the library the central distributing agency for all illustrative material and thus save the duplication which is sure to result when each department keeps its own set of slides, pictures, etc. A lantern slide for Julius Cæsar is of use in Latin, English and history, a manufacturer's exhibit of the manufacture of cotton goods is valuable in the biology work on economic uses of plants, in exposition work in English and in industrial courses. If kept in the library all this material can be properly catalogued and available for all departments.

The school library should have such an exposure as will insure plenty of sunshine where growing plants may add to the attractiveness of the room. If the library is to do its best work for the pupils it should be made as inviting and suggestive as possible. There should be interesting pictures on the walls, many bulletin boards for posting pictures, tempting reading lists, clippings, etc., and a large news bulletin board, on which can be arranged clippings from the morning paper, giving the gist of the day's news. The editing of such a news bulletin is excellent practice for high-school students in selecting and sorting the day's news, and learning to read a daily newspaper quickly and intelligently.

V. A LIBRARY CLASSROOM AND ITS POSSIBILITIES.

Wherever possible there should be a library classroom or lecture room adjoining the library and belonging to it. This room should be equipped, as suggested by Mr. Coulter, with projectoscope, Victrola, etc., and could serve all departments of the school.

We are indebted to Prof. Allan Abbott of Teachers College, Columbia University, for the following plan for this library classroom and its service to the English department:

1. There should be adjoining the library a room not assigned to regular classes, but available for occasional use by any class that wishes to use for a period material from the library or the special equipment of the room.
2. Equipment. As a laboratory of letters, corresponding to the science laboratories and the art studios, to contain all appliances of occasional use to the English teacher that are too expensive to duplicate and too cumbersome to move about conveniently; e. g., Victrola, reflectoscope, model stage, small actual stage.
3. Arrangement. Seats for not more than 50 students, to be movable chairs with arms for note taking. These seats to occupy not more than two-thirds of the room. At one end a stage about 2 feet high; curtain poles above at the height of the window tops, from which can be hung draperies (designed and stenciled in the art department) of a formal or symbolic sort, to suggest backgrounds of Shakespearean or other plays. A small table and two chairs of formal lines as stage properties. On rear wall an aluminum screen for projections. Electric connection and a low power reflectoscope. Black shades for darkening room. Walls fitted with cork and burlap for easy display of pictures. Filing cabinet for selected pictures and post cards. A model of the Elizabethan stage as reconstructed by Godfrey or Allbright, and of a modern stage, possibly of a Greek theater and others.
4. A few projects:
   (*a*) *Victrola.* Records from great passages of literature recited well—as by Bispham, Miss Matheson, etc. For the teaching of lyric—well-known songs, as the Schubert setting of Shakespeare's songs, or the original airs; songs of Burns and others.
   (*b*) *Reflectoscope.* Talks by teachers, or better by students, on travel, on the life and surroundings of an author, on the scenery described in a given book (e. g., Lady of the Lake), etc., illustrated on the screen. Similar talks on the works of a given artist or period, on a scientific topic, on a social topic, as child labor, etc., to be handled as oral composition and written up by the class.
   (*c*) *Stage.* To be used for the reading (or acting very simply, without costume or make-up) of scenes from a variety of plays, the object being to stimulate the dramatic imagination by the use of a few abstract or symbolic properties, just enough to screen off the actual school-room details.
   (*d*) *Wall display.* A set of Hogarth's prints displayed when a class is studying eighteenth century literature; made a basis for free observation and discussion for half an hour, with note taking in preparation for composition.

In addition to the above uses of the room, as suggested by Prof. Abbott, the committee suggests that it be used by the librarian and

teachers of English in giving definite instruction to students in the use of reference books and library tools, such as card catalogue, indexes to periodicals, etc. Here also an English teacher could bring a class to look over illustrated books on a particular time or author, such as the Odyssey or manners and customs of Addison's time, or to spend an occasional "library period" with a class, arousing interest in books recommended for home reading, showing students tempting illustrated editions of these books which may be read in the library during free-study periods, having parts of the books read aloud to arouse interest. This room would make an excellent social center for library reading and debating clubs after school. All departments could use it in ways similar to those suggested for the work in English. Such a room has been planned for the library of the Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

For the small high school, where the above suggestions are entirely out of the question, even that of combination of study hall and library, the room devoted to English and history may be made headquarters for the library. This use of a recitation room for the library should be a last resort, for the school library should be accessible to all teachers and pupils during the entire school day, and there is loss when books are shut up in recitation rooms.

For plan of room, size, equipment, etc., see the following references:

Bardwell, Darwin L. Report on high-school libraries. *In* Maxwell, W. H. Sixteenth annual report of the city superintendents of schools. Special Report on high schools. 1904. p. 43–50.
Outlines equipment needed in modern high school. States approximate cost annually.

Fay, Lucy E. School library equipment. *In her* Use of books and libraries. Boston, Boston Book Co., 1915. p. 375–380. $2.25.

The library room and its equipment. White Plains, N. Y., H. W. Wilson Co., 1916. (Wilson Bulletin. High-school library number. June, 1916. p. 111–113.)

McKnight, Elizabeth B. The high-school branch. Newark Public Library, Newark, N. J. White Plains, N. Y., H. W. Wilson Co. 50 cents.
Contains excellent plan of room and equipment.

Newberry, Marie. The normal high-school library budget. *In* National Education Association. Proceedings, 1914. p. 817–820.
Discusses cost.

Nunn, Janet. Planning and equipping a high-school library room. Public Libraries, 20: 406–409, November, 1915.
Excellent practical suggestions for a city school

Ward, Gilbert O. High-school library. Chicago, Ill., American Library Association Publishing Board, 1914. p. 2–3.

Wilson, Martha. The school library room. School Education, 35: 29–30, January, 1916.
Practical suggestions for the small high school.

VI. BOOKS.

The following are suggestions as to books needed for effective work in English:

(a) Reference books.

1. General reference books, such as dictionaries, encyclopedias.
2. Special reference books for teachers, such as methods of teaching English, works on dramatization, short-story composition.
3. Special reference books for students, such as debating helps, one or more good histories of English literature, anthologies.

(b) Good illustrated editions of the great books in standard literature which every boy and girl should know before he leaves high school, such as Arabian Nights, Odyssey, Shakespeare's works, illustrated by our best artists, Rackham, Maxfield Parrish.

The influence of these books in arousing interest in good literature is so great that we urge upon even the small high-school library the importance of making a collection, even if only one book a year can be purchased. Classes on graduating could often give as much as the cost of one book, and often the proceeds of an entertainment will make possible the purchase of several each year. These should be kept for use in the school building.

A suggestive list, with prices, may be obtained from the chairman of this committee.

(c) Books for collateral reading, e. g., those which add to the interest in a study of a literary period; or the works of a special author, e. g., books on the life and time of Addison, Johnson, Shakespeare. Books making the work in Ivanhoe, Irving's Sketch Book, etc., interesting; those adding to the interest in Tale of Two Cities by giving some idea of the French Revolution.

(d) Books for home reading. Biography, fiction, travel, poetry, drama, and readable works on present-day questions, civic and social. The best of contemporary writing as well as standard works. Stimulating and inspiring books that the average high-school student will enjoy. Such books as those used in the Central High School, Grand Rapids, are excellent in vocational guidance.

(e) A representative collection of these books in good editions should form a permanent collection in the school library and be always on hand for pupils to use during free periods. This will awaken interest in many books and lead to a desire to take them home. There should always be some arrangement for duplicate copies which may be borrowed through the school library. Either the school should provide these or the school library should arrange for traveling libraries from the public library. These should be kept the entire school year or for shorter periods and circulate from the school library for home use. This makes it possible for the high-school library to experiment with many different books and try them out on different students in the effort to meet their personal needs. It means using the school library as something of a "sample shop," to show high-school boys and girls what the public library offers them in the way of good reading; and these few books in the school library mean the circulation of many copies from the public library itself when enthusiasm over certain books is awakened.

f. There should be a collection of popular scientific books which can be used as bases for oral themes. Many boys who are not interested in so-called literature begin the reading habit when directed to these books.

The ownership of books and the building up of home libraries should be encouraged by the school library. There should be a suggestive collection of good editions to own, Everyman, Cranford series, Temple edition, Ben Greet Shakespeare, and a list of prices and publishers.

In building up the high-school library care should be taken not to lumber the shelves with deadwood. Avoid whole sets of standard authors whose works are never read and subscription books, which are usually of slight value.

As aids in buying books we suggest the following book lists for high-school libraries. Without exception these lists have been prepared for the medium-sized and small high school.

Fay, Lucy E. Selection of books for a small high-school library. *In her* Use of books and libraries. 1915. p. 149–182.

Hall, M. E. Books for the browsing corner of a high-school library: a list of illustrated editions. *In* Wilson. Bulletin, June, 1916. p. 118–121.

Hitchcock, Alfred M. List of books for home reading. Hartford, Conn., Hartford High School. 5 cents.

Oregon. Library Commission. Books for high-school libraries. Salem, Oreg. 25 cents.

United States. Bureau of Education. List of books suited to a high-school library, compiled by the University High School, Chicago, Ill., 1913.

University of the State of New York. Division of school libraries. Annotated book list for secondary schools: English section. Albany, N. Y., 1914.

Wilson, Martha, *ed*. Books for high-school libraries. Chicago, American Library Association Publishing Board, 1914. 50 cents.

Wisconsin. Department of Education. List of books for high-school libraries in the State of Wisconsin. Madison, 1911. 15 cents. Supplement, 1911–12. 15 cents.

LISTS OF BOOKS FOR HOME READING.

Grand Rapids Public Library. List of books used in vocational and moral guidance in the English department of the Central High School, Grand Rapids.

National Council of Teachers of English. Report of the Committee on Home Reading. Chicago Normal College. 10 cents.

Newark (N. J.) Public Library. Reading for pleasure and profit. 1913. 10 cents.
Graded list of books and readings prepared in cooperation with teachers of Barringer High School.

VII. PERIODICALS.

So much of the work in the modern high schools deals with contemporary affairs that periodicals are essential. For oral report, topics for theme work, and debate, the following periodicals are recommended: Independent, Outlook, World's Work, Literary Digest, Current Opinion, Survey, Review of Reviews, American City, National Geographic Magazine, Scientific American, and Popular Mechanics. For examples of best contemporary short stories, essays, poetry, travel, and biographical sketches and discussion of current

topics high-school libraries find the following useful: Atlantic Monthly, Harper's Monthly, Century, Scribner. Whenever possible the school library should have on file the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature. For the small library we recommend the World's Work, one good weekly magazine, and one of the four monthlies above mentioned.

In the small library gifts of magazines from the homes of students can often be secured. These can be bound or clippings made from them for English work.

For list of periodicals for high-school libraries consult:

Fay, Lucy E. Periodicals recommended for a small high-school library. *In her* Use of books and libraries. 1915. p. 137–138.

Horton, Marion. Periodicals for the high-school library. Library Journal, July, 1916. p. 522–524.

New York City. Department of Education. Report on the high-school libraries of New York; by Darwin L. Bardwell. *In* Sixteenth annual report of the city superintendent of schools for year ending July 31, 1914. Special report on high schools. p. 43–50.

Newark Public Library. High-school branch. White Plains, N. Y., H. W. Wilson Co., 1913. 50 cents.

VIII. CLIPPINGS FROM MAGAZINES AND NEWSPAPERS.

For either the large high-school library or the small these are inexpensive aids in English work when properly selected, classified, and filed. They are particularly valuable for local affairs—those of the city or town in which the school is situated. Newspaper clippings may be mounted on cheap mimeograph paper 8½ by 11 inches and filed in manila envelopes or folders 9 by 11½ inches. These can be kept alphabetically in a vertical file or drawer and arranged by heading written on upper left-hand corner, "Commission Government," "Shipping Bill," "Unemployment," etc.

Clippings from magazines are particularly valuable for good examples of the short story, description, narration, etc. These may be bound as in the Barringer High School, Newark, N. J., or fastened in Gaylord pamphlet binders (Gaylord Bros., Syracuse, N. Y.), or simply covered with manila paper such as the biology folders found in high schools. They are loaned for home use the same as books and are of great value.

For references on methods of keeping clippings and their use in high-school work see the following:

Dana, J. C. The vertical file. White Plains, N. Y., H. W. Wilson Co. 50 cents. Practical suggestions for keeping clippings.

Johnston, W. D. The newspaper morgue. *In* National Education Association. Proceedings, 1914. p. 812.

McKnight, E. B. The high-school branch. 1913. pp. 17–18. (Modern American library economy as illustrated in the Newark Public Library.) White Plains, N. Y., H. W. Wilson Co. 50 cents.

IX. ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL.

As a matter of efficiency and economy the library should be the center for all illustrative material.

(*a*) Lantern slides. These should be filed in a special case and a collection of these should be made to meet the needs of the English work, e. g., reproductions of Rackham's charming illustrations of Rip Van Winkle, scenes from Ivanhoe, Shakespeare's plays, Stratford, etc. For information concerning slides and lantern or projectoscope see departments of visual instruction: University of the State of New York, Albany, N. Y.; University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. For a classified catalogue of lantern slides for school work see The World Visualized. New York, Underwood & Underwood. $1.00. (List of slides for English work selected by J. F. Hosic.)

(*b*) *Pictures, mounted or unmounted.*—These may be secured at little expense and are of value in awakening interest. In addition to the well-known pictures, Perry, Cosmos, Brown, etc., sold for a cent or so, high schools make use of illustrations from magazines and books too worn to bind. The Mentor Magazine furnishes in a year's subscription many pictures which may be used to good advantage in English.

As illustrating what a rich mine the magazines form for this collection, we mention the Maxfield Parrish pictures of Milton's L'Allegro and Il Penseroso, Abbey's illustrations for Shakespeare's plays, for Deserted Village, etc. For picture collections see:

Dana, J. C. The picture collection. Modern library economy. White Plains, N. Y., H. W. Wilson Co. 35 cents.

——— *and* Coult, Margaret. High-school aids—pictures and objects. White Plains, N. Y., H. W. Wilson Co. $1.00.

Contains an article on the use of pictures in English in the Barringer High School, Newark. Lists dealers in pictures, lantern slides, etc., and best pictures for Ivanhoe, Silas Marner, Julius Cæsar, etc.

Ward, C. C. Manual for the use of pictures in the teaching of English. Newton, Mass., University Prints Co. 25 cents.

For use of pictures in teaching literature see the following:

(1) Illustrative helps for the De Coverley papers. English Journal, 4: 529–530, October, 1915.

(2) Coleridge. Ancient Mariner. Illustrated editions and pictures. English Journal, 4: 673–674, 1915.

(3) Pictures for Ivanhoe, and Irving's Sketch Book. English Journal, 4: 274–280, April, 1916.

(4) List of print catalogues and post-card publishers. English Journal, 4: 672–673, December, 1915.

(*c*) *Post cards.*—These may be used in a lantern with proper attachment, and even where there is no lantern they can be used to advantage for many years if protected by celluloid post-card holders (Gaylord Bros., Syracuse, N. Y.) when passed around in class or posted on bulletin boards. Where these holders are used, friends of

teachers and pupils will often lend or give post cards to the school library. Especially valuable in English work are the "Little Phostint Journeys," by the Detroit Photographic Co.; the French post cards illustrating the French Revolution; cards from Stratford, Westminster Abbey, and from the Scott country; Library of Congress cards for Comus, Wordsworth, Keats, and Shelley.

These cards should be arranged by subject in drawers or trays in the school library.

For information as to sources for illustrative material see: Crawford, Mary. The laboratory equipment of the teacher of English. English Journal, March, 1915. pp. 145–151.

X. USE OF LIBRARY RESOURCES OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL BUILDING.

As a committee we recommend that the library make the largest possible use of all outside agencies that may further its work. The secret of the successful high-school library to-day is in a knowledge of the work of these educational agencies and cooperation with them. The high-school library can no longer afford to be sufficient unto itself.

(*a*) *Public library.*—There should be the fullest possible use of the larger resources of the public library and close cooperation between public library and school library. Students should be given library work which requires the constant use of the public library and should be trained by librarian of school and public library to use books and library aids intelligently. Excellent use can be made of traveling libraries from the public library, and there should be a definite scheme by which books wanted for only a few days for special work in the school library may be sent by the public library or by a school messenger without the formality of a traveling library. In some cities from 300 to 500 books a year are borrowed in this way by the high-school library and kept on school shelves from September to June for home circulation.

For the small town or rural high school the county library or the State library often is the source for the same kind of help that the public library renders in the city.

(*b*) *State aid.*—In most States there is aid and counsel for the small high-school library in the State university library, the normal school libraries, which are often in charge of public-spirited librarians interested in the whole school-library problem, in the State library commission, or the State superintendent of school libraries, as in Minnesota.

(*c*) *National aid.*—The library of the United States Bureau of Education can often be of great service to the small high school, especially in supplying lists of references on topics of special interest

in high-school work, e. g., self-government, vocational guidance, school gardens, etc.

Much valuable printed matter for debate subjects may be obtained free or at little cost from the Superintendent of Documents.

XI. INSTRUCTION OF STUDENTS IN THE USE OF A LIBRARY.

As a committee we feel that a most important work of the school library is to train pupils for the intelligent use of any library—school, college, or public. We recommend that in the final report on the course of study in English there be included from four to eight lessons as a minimum requirement in definite training of high-school pupils in the use of reference books, encyclopedias, standard large dictionaries, year books, indexes to periodical literature, to ordinary books, to sets of books, etc., also instruction in the use of a card catalogue and some knowledge of the classification commonly used in libraries. We urge that this instruction be given by the school librarian or English teacher, or, if more feasible, by the librarian of the public library and that credit be given by the English department for this work.

For references on the value of this instruction, outline courses, etc., see the following:

Hopkins, Florence M. Methods of instruction in the use of high-school libraries. *In* National Education Association. Proceedings, 1905. p. 858–864.

——— The place of the library in high-school education. Library Journal, 35: 55–60, February, 1910.

Mendenhall, I. M. Training of high-school students in the use of the library. Library Journal, April, 1913. p. 189–192.

Wooley, E. C. Student's use of the dictionary. Educational Review, 1912. p. 492–501.

Outlines of Courses and Aids in Instruction.

Gilson, M. L. Course of study for normal-school students on the use of a library. White Plains, N. Y., H. W. Wilson Co., 1909. (Modern American Library Economy. Pt. V, sec. 2.) 75 cents.

The first four lessons are adapted to high-school use.

Hopkins, Florence M. Allusions, words and phrases that should be known and where to find them. Detroit Central High School. Pub. by the author. 35 cents.

——— Reference guides that should be known and how to use them. Detroit, The Willard Co. $1.50.

Sold also in sections at 35 cents each.

——— Outlines and reference problems for eight lessons for high school pupils. Detroit Central High School. Pub. by the author. 4 cents.

Ward, G. O. Practical use of books and libraries. 2d ed. Boston Book Co., 1914. $1.

Teaching outline to accompany the above, 50 cents.

See also outlines in—

Madison, Elizabeth. A high-school course in library use. English Journal, March, 1916.

We recommend that there be appointed in every State a trained and experienced librarian as supervisor of school libraries, as in Minnesota and in New Jersey. In order that this may be brought about and the development of high-school libraries be encouraged in every way possible we urge the appointment in each State of a standing committee on high-school libraries to be made up of representatives from State teachers associations and State library associations. Teachers of English and history are especially urged to serve on such committees and to form such committees.

The members of the Committee on the Library and its Equipment wish to express their indebtedness to many teachers and librarians for the help so generously given in compiling this report. We are particularly indebted to the following for their careful reading of the preliminary draft of the report and their constructive criticism and valuable suggestions: Prof. Allen Abbott, Teachers College, Columbia University; Mr. Gilbert O. Ward, Cleveland Public Library; Mr. W. H. Kerr, State Normal School, Emporia, Kans.; Miss Irene Warren, School of Education, Chicago University, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Martha Wilson, State Supervisor of School Libraries, St. Paul, Minn.; and Miss Edna Pratt, State Supervisor of School Libraries, Trenton, N. J.

XIV. ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS.

The reorganization of the English course must ultimately be effected by the administrative and supervisory officers of the schools. In order to give definite point to this obvious fact a series of brief summaries of the principal problems that are peculiarly administrative has been prepared by the committee. In the bibliography under appropriate heads will be found sufficient references to make available the best current thought and information on each subject.

1. ARTICULATION WITH THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

Much attention has been given for many years to the problem of college admission. Unfortunately, the relationship of the elementary-school course in English to that in the high school has not received commensurate attention, although the most casual observation revealed the fact that there was little or no correlation between these two principal parts of public-school education. To assist in meeting this difficulty the National Council of Teachers of English appointed, in May, 1912, a committee to make an investigation and offer recommendations. At the annual meeting of the council in November, 1913, the committee, through its chairman, Ernest C. Noyes, of Pittsburgh, offered a report based upon about 300 replies from all parts of the Union.

The principal conditions commented upon in the report are summarized by the committee as follows:

> First, a study of the courses of the elementary school indicates that much more is being called for on paper than can possibly be accomplished. The requirements are too many, too heavy, and too vague. Such different types of work as grammar, oral composition, written composition, rhetoric, spelling, word study and dictionary work, reading, literature, and memorizing are all required at the same time; and so general are the recommendations made and so large is their content that individual teachers must become bewildered. Definite, detailed, printed courses of study reasonable in their prescriptions are the great desiderata of the grammar-school work in English.[1] At present there seem in most cases to be no irreducible minima that must be attained under individual heads. The result is heterogeneity in instruction and in accomplishment.

[1] Among the best printed courses which have fallen under the eyes of the committee are those of Everett, Mass.; Brookline, Mass.; Worcester, Mass.; Washington, D. C.; Paterson and Plainfield, N. J.; Indianapolis, Ind.; Decatur, Ill.; Muncie, Ind.; State Normal School, Farmville, W. Va.; "The Teaching of Elementary Composition and Grammar," State of New Jersey, Department of Public Instruction, and especially Boston, Mass., "School Document" No. 8, 1909.

In the second place, certain things are being taught that had better be postponed to the high school, since they do not appeal to the capacity and state of development of the elementary-school pupil. Too much is asked for in the way of analytical grammar. This subject derives its present untoward emphasis from a widely prevailing conception that it is basic, that upon progress in grammar depends language sense and, hence, advance in appreciation and use of language. One extremist who has answered the committee's blank compares the knowledge of formal grammar to knowledge of the combinations in multiplication. This is a false analogy. Advance in language power comes not through the reasoning mind, but through the automatic, unreasoning ear; ear training makes for real advance in language and ear training only, with the young. The time-devouring demands of formal English grammar are outrageous; the results on language interpretation and language use are practically nil. The elementary school should sharply delimit the term "grammar" as applying to analytic, formal grammar—the grammar that encumbers absorptive little minds with useless terminology—and emphasize grammar in the sense of correct use, the facts to be drilled on as use and not to be terminologized. In some places too much attention is paid to analysis of forms of discourse and to other topics which, though valuable in themselves, are devouring time that could be better expended. Such work demands information and analytic tendencies, including reflection simply not possessed by children.

The elementary schools have become too ambitious. Because so many pupils leave at the close of the elementary school to enter the business world there has developed a quasi doctrine that the grammar school must give the children a little of everything before they "get out into the world," and that the high school, "the people's college," must, for a similar reason, forestall much that used to be left for the college. The fact that a hundred things are interesting does not mean that a school should try to give instruction in all of the hundred. The coming of the "subject teacher," the specialist, with broad and intensive equipment, has emphasized the tendency to cover more ground than can profitably be covered, and it is time that some one called a halt and demanded that the elementary school, as well as the high school, center instruction on the chief needs and interests of our pupils to the exclusion of all else.

To proceed to details: Oral composition, though strongly emphasized in the North Central States, is frequently not mentioned in the Middle and Eastern States; and, where it is mentioned, it is not systematically organized and apparently has received little definite attention. In many places it seems to be regarded as merely incidental or as preparatory to written composition, and to be conducted in a haphazard manner. Especially noticeable in all parts of the country is the neglect of the training of the voice in distinct enunciation, clear articulation, and agreeable tones.

Written composition receives much more attention, though in many schools there is not enough practice. The best interests of children require the writing of at least one composition a week. Though much time is given to the writing of business and social letters, friendly letters seem to receive little attention. The overemphasis of the study of the forms of discourse has already been mentioned. The elements of formal rhetoric pursued in some schools form another subject that can be taken up to better advantage in the high school. The most conspicuous weakness, however, in composition courses is the lack of sufficient practice in talking and writing.

The situation in regard to reading and literature is much better. It seems probable that in the majority of schools the young people are placed in touch with the best literature. Sometimes a book like Hamlet—manifestly un-

suited to grammar-school pupils—is used, and in some courses there is still too narrow a range of reading. Most of the courses, however, offer the teacher an opportunity to select from a wide list of supplementary books those best adapted to her class. Those most frequently used, not necessarily the most suitable in all cases, seem to be: The Christmas Carol, The Courtship of Miles Standish, Evangeline, The Lady of the Lake, The Legend of Sleepy Hollow and Rip Van Winkle, Snow-Bound, Tales from Shakespeare, Julius Cæsar, The Merchant of Venice, The Great Stone Face, The Man Without a Country, and Heidi.

Grammar, in most schools, seems to occupy from half to three-fifths of the school time devoted to English in the last three years of the eight-year course. The content of the courses in grammar ranges from the extreme of formal technical study to the very simplest treatment of the parts of speech, the sentence, and elementary syntax, with stress upon constructive work and the correction of faulty English. The courses considered vary so widely that all that can safely be said about them is that, on the whole, grammar receives altogether too much time and is taught too intensively and too analytically. None but the very simplest instruction in formal analytic grammar is needed by elementary-school pupils.[1] Any really general constructive change in the articulation between the two types of schools would involve, at the outset, the determined delimitation of grammar for the two types of schools and of the intensiveness with which it shall be studied. Grammar is a grand educational bugaboo, a much-terrifying but really harmless Mumbo Jumbo. It should be subjected to missionary attack. This committee wishes to be counted among the first of those to take a hand at the rope to pull down this heathen idol.

In some of the schools having the most definite courses of study the use of the dictionary is carefully taught, and certain rules of punctuation are assigned for mastery in each grade. These practices should become universal.

If one is to judge by the answers received by the committee, the high-school courses in the first year are much more carefully organized than those in the three last years of the elementary school. The outlines of work are more definite, and attention seems generally to be concentrated on a few specific points. The chief faults of first-year high-school courses are that they are often too ambitious and too literary for the ordinary pupil; that too much time is spent in detailed critical study of classics that are too difficult; that, as in the grammar school, too much stress is laid upon form and not enough upon use; and that the courses, instead of being flexible enough to be adaptable to the need of entering pupils, are rigid in their prescriptions. The high school should fit the course to the pupil; as a rule, it attempts to fit the pupil to the course. The country over, there appears, from the answers received by the committee, to be less variety in the classics read in the first year of the high school than in those assigned to the last year of the elementary school. The most popular are: Julius Cæsar, Ivanhoe, The Sketch Book, The Lady of the Lake, Treasure Island, and The Vision of Sir Launfal. Four of these, it will be noticed, are among those most used in the grammar schools. It seems, however, to be generally agreed that, though there are defects in the English course of the high school in the first year, these are not nearly so much to blame for the failures of first-year pupils as is poor teaching in the first year.

To recapitulate, your committee finds in the elementary school as conditions hindering good articulation: Requirements too extensive and too indefinite; subjects like dry, unapplied grammar, the analysis of specimens of dis-

[1] For an interesting study of the value of formal grammar as a training of the mind, see "Formal English Grammar as a Discipline," Teachers College Record, September, 1913.

course, and formal rhetoric which is ill adapted to young pupils; too little practice in speaking and writing; too little drill on the essentials of spelling, punctuation, and manuscript neatness, and the ready conventional use of paper; and, in some schools, poverty of reading material. In the high-school courses the requirements lack elasticity, are too ambitious and literary, and so are often unrelated to the interests of the entering classes, to which there is little continuous effort to adapt the work.

After passing in review various complaints as to unsatisfactory articulation and suggestions for the improvement of the situation, the committee concludes as follows:

To sum up, the committee has found articulation to be generally unsatisfactory the country over. The adjustment is poor in all forms of English study. It is believed by many that this prevailing maladjustment is due to defects in the curriculum or the organization of the elementary school; to the unreasonable demands of the high school, traceable in part, it may be, to the college entrance requirements; to the complete difference in organization between the elementary school and the high school, which confuses an entering pupil thrown on his own responsibility to an extent wholly alien to his experience; to faults in the teaching in each type of school; to the failure of each type of teacher to learn of the work of the other; and to the almost total absence of cooperation between teachers in the two classes of schools. To your committee, however, it seems that the majority of these criticisms deal with symptoms of the disease rather than with causes. The true causes lie deeper. The articulation is poor in most places simply because little effort is made to secure good articulation. As Mr. Mitchill has well expressed it: "A diligent examination of all available material has failed to produce any evidence that choice of books, subjects of instruction, or methods of teaching of subjects can be assigned as a reason for good articulation or poor articulation between the elementary schools and the high schools of particular localities. To arrive at any such conclusions would mean a straining of the facts or a distortion of logic. Good articulation at the present time arises from a combining of a good selection of material by well-educated, professionally minded, enthusiastic, conscientious teachers of elementary schools and high schools working together for a common end under amalgamating supervision." That is to say, provide all the conditions necessary for good teaching, plan for a correlation of courses and for cooperation in working them out, and you will have good articulation. In short, to articulate, you must articulate.

As remedies which, it must be distinctly understood, are only palliatives without the establishment of the healthful general conditions named above as essential to any permanently successful articulation, the committee makes the following recommendations:

1. That the large and complex terminology of English be clearly defined by those whose position enables them to speak with authority so that the work to be done in any particular part of the school course can be accurately stated and clearly understood.

2. That the ground to be covered in each phase of English in each type of school be carefully delimited.

3. That in both schools the courses of study be simplified and revised so as to include much less formal grammar, but much more thorough drill in applied grammar, so as to include a wider range of reading matter and more oral composition, and so as to appeal more to the sympathies and interests of pupils. That in the high-school course a separation be made between what may be

called "practical English," which every pupil should study, and so-called "cultural English."

4. That full, definite syllabi, rich in specific details, be prepared and printed for the guidance of teachers, and that representative teachers of various grades be consulted in the preparation of such syllabi.

5. That the organization of the two schools be planned and the courses administered in such a way as to contribute to good articulation by the employment of such and as many of the schemes following as may be feasible in any particular locality:

(*a*) The assignment of the most efficient teachers in the high school to the charge of first-year classes.

(*b*) The more general use of departmental teaching in the elementary school, or the plan of one teacher in several subjects in the first year of the high school, or of both.

(*c*) The promotion of acquaintance and mutual cooperation between teachers in the two classes of schools by means of joint conferences, exchange of visits, notification by the high-school teachers of the prevailing faults in the English of entering pupils, and similar means.

(*d*) The assignment of successful elementary-school teachers to the first-year work of the high school and vice versa, for a year at least.

(*e*) The complete reorganization of the two schools on the plan, giving six years to each.

(*f*) The close correlation and continuous supervision of the two courses by a supervisor of English or other competent authority.

The problem of articulation was in a measure solved in the city of Charleston, W. Va., through the efforts of a special supervisor of English. In her account[1] of her activities, Miss Mary B. Fontaine states that the principal steps taken were to secure an agreement upon the essentials which should be insisted upon in the various grades and the working out in detail of a course of study which should be continuous from the first grade through the twelfth.

The publication of Miss Fontaine's article has proved a stimulus to other cities, and a number of supervisors of English have already been empolyed. The results are uniformly good and would seem to argue for the general extension of this plan. The contention is not justifiable that a subject like drawing or German should require the supervision of a highly trained expert, while the teaching of the vernacular may safely be left in the hands of those who have had only a general, and often not too thorough, education. The committee would urge upon the administrators of the country, as a definite policy, the employment of special supervisors of English.

In the judgment of the committee the other main effective step to take at the present time is to regard high-school work as beginning with the seventh school grade. In order to facilitate such a step the outlines in literature and composition which have been prepared and which appear above cover the six years beginning with the seventh grade. This is in harmony with the report of the committee on the

[1] English Journal, 3: 416, September, 1914.

six-year course of study which was presented to the National Education Association in 1908 by the chairman, Eugene Lyttle,[1] and is in accord also with the forthcoming recommendations of the National Education Association commission on the reorganization of secondary education. In the former report a tentative statement was made as to what attainments might be expected at the end of the sixth school year. The present committee has prepared a similar statement after wide consultation of principals and teachers in the elementary schools. It is not to be understood as constituting high-school entrance requirements, but rather as the aims that the elementary schools themselves regard as reasonable. The statement of attainments is as follows:

> At the end of the sixth grade pupils should be able: (1) To express clearly and consecutively, either in speech or in writing, ideas which are familiar and firmly grasped; (2) to avoid gross grammatical errors; (3) to compose and mail a letter; (4) to spell their own written vocabulary; (5) to read silently, and after one reading to reproduce the substance of a simple short story, news item, or lesson; (6) to read aloud readily and intelligently simple news items, lessons from textbooks, or literature of such difficulty as The Ride of Paul Revere, or Dickens's A Christmas Carol; (7) to quote accurately and understandingly several short poems, such as Bennet's The Flag Goes By and Emerson's The Mountain and the Squirrel. Building upon the attainments which the elementary-school pupils are found to possess, each high school should organize a course in English in accordance with the aims and principles set forth above. The details of such a course will of necessity be varied to satisfy the requirements of different communities.

It should be emphasized that to make any scheme of articulation effective there must be a definite and clear understanding as to what is to be undertaken in each year of the course, and that there must be constant conference between the teachers of the different years. The plan adopted in Newton, Mass., of exchanging certain teachers in the elementary school with the teachers in the high school for a year at a time has proved very successful in supplementing group conferences.

2. SEPARATION OF THE TEACHING OF LITERATURE AND THE TEACHING OF COMPOSITION.

The report of the present committee distinguishes clearly between English for work and English for leisure; that is to say, between the more practical aspects of English and the more purely esthetic and literary. This distinction is of great importance and should be very carefully defined. It should be understood that there is no desire on the part of the committee to separate reading from speaking and writing. Any misconception on this point will be prevented if the fact is perceived that the word "literature" is used by the com-

[1] Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1908, p. 625.

mittee in its narrow sense—that of the French belles-lettres—and refers to poetry, fiction, drama, and the informal personal essay and not to well-written biography, history, science, travel, and mechanics. When the pupils are practicing speaking and writing for the sake of giving information or of forming opinion, they should certainly have the opportunity of reading and discussing good examples of the same sort, taken mainly from contemporaries. In the same way, when they are reading poetry, plays, and stories, they should be encouraged to creative effort as one of the best possible methods of attaining to skill in interpretation and fullness of appreciation.

The administering of any scheme of separation will require the making of separate records and the handing in of separate credits for the work in practical English and the work in literary English. This may be accomplished by assigning the work in practical English to a certain specified place in the course and the literary English to another. In several school systems, Detroit, Chicago, Madison, and Washington, for example, this has been accomplished by an alternation of semesters, one being devoted to what is called composition and another to what is called literature. In other systems the period of separation is shorter, consisting of 10 weeks or less. Still other schools carry it out less effectively by assigning composition to certain days in the week and literature to other days in the week. In any case, both types of instruction should be entrusted to the same teachers of English unless there is some very excellent reason to the contrary, in order, first, that useful correlation may be made between the two types of work, and second, that no one teacher shall be overburdened with the work in composition. It should be understood, moreover, that the general reading of the pupils, done at home or in free periods at school, should go on without interruption during the weeks devoted to composition as well as during the weeks devoted to literature.

The arguments for such a separation have been clearly set forth by several recent writers, whose articles are listed in the bibliography under the appropriate head. The principal ones are as follows: (1) Separation leads to the proper emphasis upon oral and written composition based on topics drawn from the personal life and observation of the pupils. (2) It obviates the difficulty of doing justice to the hard worker who is not brilliant in literature, on the one hand, and the careless and dilatory but quick-witted reader of literature, on the other. (3) It makes possible more appropriate aims and methods in the treatment of what are essentially different types of work. It prevents confusion of aims. The serious grind which is necessary for the mastery of the fundamentals of grammar and composition is

deadly when applied to the study of literature, whose ultimate purpose must be the establishment of ideals of life, good methods of reading, and the habit of turning to books for the proper enjoyment of leisure hours. Finally, (4) it makes possible cooperation on the part of all departments from the fact that the teacher of mathematics and the teacher of science will readily assist in establishing habits of careful and accurate expression, but can hardly be expected to support, except through general attitude, the teaching of poetry and fiction. It is believed that these arguments are sound. No school that has put the new plan into effect has failed to find satisfaction or has gone back to the older method of organization.

3. COOPERATION WITH OTHER DEPARTMENTS.

The relation of the work in English to the other studies of the school, which was discussed at length in the Nation and other periodicals a few years ago, and which was worked out practically in certain reports made to the New England Association of Teachers of English,[1] has recently been treated at length by several writers. Speaking to the secondary department of the National Education Association at Salt Lake City in 1913, Mr. James F. Hosic, of the Chicago Normal College, pointed out the importance of cooperation because of the fact that the use of good language is a habit and therefore must be practiced throughout the day's work. The pupil often comes to school with bad habits of expression well established. It requires the united efforts of teachers to overcome these. Such efforts are possible only where all the members of the teaching staff have the same standards and common aims and when the working conditions of the school are favorable. Moreover, these requirements can be supplied only through the good generalship of the principal of the school. He must see that the English teachers are not overprecise nor the science teachers unduly careless. He must plan for conferences in which the minima of English instruction are carefully outlined, and he must see to it that the English teachers have the opportunity of dealing with their pupils as individuals.[2]

As a typical example of successful cooperation the following concerning the High School of Commerce in Boston, written by Mr. O. C. Gallagher, principal of the West Roxbury High School, when in charge of the High School of Commerce, may be quoted:

> The teacher of subjects other than English demands that the work be clear and substantially correct in spelling, punctuation, and sentence structure. Failing to secure the first, he lowers the pupil's mark, and, at his option, demands revision; failing to secure the second, he withholds all credit until the work is

[1] See Brown, Successful Combination Against the Inert; Gallagher, Cooperation in English; Grace, Some Successful Experiments in Cooperation, in the bibliography.

[2] Proceedings of the National Education Association for 1913, p. 478. See also the School Review, vol. 21, and Johnston's Modern High School, chap. 25.

presented in a satisfactory form. The teacher of English insists that every piece of writing shall be regarded as an English theme to be corrected, revised, and rewritten, and to count in the making up of the mark in English. The collection of papers at unexpected moments convinces most pupils of the unwisdom of taking chances, for even if the English teacher fails to collect a set, the teacher of the other subject is likely to send him any piece of slipshod work.

Again, a conscientious attempt is made to teach pupils how to answer questions in other subjects. We correlate the English work in the first year with history, in the second with commercial geography, in the third with local industries and civil government, in the fourth with business law and economics. By drawing upon these branches for occasional subjects and correcting the themes orally for sentence structure, unity, mass, and coherence we try to train the pupils to bear in mind the principles of English while their attention is focused upon another subject. Similarly in connection with science descriptions of apparatus and expositions of experiments are required, and the teacher of science is consulted as to the adequacy of the productions from a technical standpoint. With foreign languages the English department has found most need for cooperation in drill upon points of grammar as they are taken up in German and in French.

Besides "corrective" cooperation there is such a thing as "preventive or anticipating" cooperation, which is quite as important as the other. Since most teachers are interested in English as a means rather than as an end, the use of English must be made effective in recitation as well as in writing. Several subjects taken up in the first year of a secondary school lend themselves readily to such drill, especially history and elementary science. After consultation between the teacher of English and the teacher of history the history textbook may be taken up in the English class and the pupil taught how to make his English do the work that the author tried to have his do. What has the author aimed at? Did he hit it? Why? How? This brings the pupil to the outline; he must get his sights in line. Then the discharge—oral delivery. The class watch as markers, criticize the sighting, aiming, line of flight, and the hit. The aim is thus upon the English essentials of unity and coherence in whole composition, paragraphs, and sentences.

The result is easier work for the teacher of history, for the teacher of English, and for the pupils, since the work in the English class is "a practical job." The pupils can measure the success of their effort in one class by their achievement in the other.

A definite experiment in cooperation was conducted in the schools of New York State during 1913–14 by Mr. R. T. Congdon, English inspector. He sent out the following letter:

The general method suggested is the setting of a standard in the simple fundamentals of written and oral speech to which all class work must attain or be rejected. As a preliminary measure, it is wise to make some arrangement by which the pupils' written work may be distributed throughout the week, and not crowded, as is often the case, into a day or two. Teachers may be assigned certain days each week or alternate week when they are at liberty, or perhaps are expected to require written work from their various classes. The standard set should be simple, as an overambitious scheme will almost surely defeat its own ends. It seems reasonable to demand neatness, correct spelling, broadly correct punctuation, the avoidance of apparent mistakes in grammar and sentence structure. Beyond this, in the first and second years, reasonable division

into paragraphs may be required, and in the third and fourth years reasonable constructions of the whole—that is, a beginning, a middle, and an end. By thus distributing written work throughout the week and simplifying and systematizing its correction, it is perhaps possible to secure daily effective drill. In the oral composition of all classrooms the first necessity will probably be to emphasize the handling of subject matter in such a way as to secure a reasonable proportion of recitations of several sentences in length. Then, when recitation bids fair to be of more than a sentence or two in length, the pupils may be required to rise, stand free from their desks, and speak substantially without aid from the teacher. In such recitations it is not too much to exact correct grammar and sentence construction, reasonably correct pronunciation and use of ordinary words, and the fundamentals of correct structure of the whole; that is, the presence of everything necessary to a complete whole, the absence of irrelevant material, and proper order. I mention these points to emphasize the essential simplicity of the oral correction of the most common and fundamental errors in construction.

Some objection to so comprehensive a scheme is naturally to be expected. A full understanding of the conditions involved can not fail, however, to go far toward removing these objections. The work suggested need take but little time. Teachers can tell almost at a glance whether or not written work is deficient in the points mentioned; at most, the attention necessary to judge the correctness of the content will at the same time test the correctness of the fundamentals of form. In all composition correction for construction (that is, for omission, irrelevance, and illogical order) is absolutely necessary to a correct statement of the subject matter of the recitation, as is correction relative to the meaning of words. For the rest, nothing more is intended than persistent criticisms of obvious, prevailing errors. It should be remembered, too, that the effectiveness of the discussion of any subject can not be greater than the coherence and accuracy of the language used. Moreover, the work of the teacher will be lightened by the fact that after a little she will be free from the drudgery of attempting to read carelessly written, illegible manuscript. "The law of self-preservation might suggest * * * that the summary rejection of papers obviously deficient in the prime elements of decent English would be an immediate relief in the number of papers to correct and a permanent relief in the ease with which subsequent papers may be corrected."

The ultimate reason, however, for adopting a system of cooperation is the advantage to the pupil. The public is beginning to demand insistently that high-school graduates shall have greater ability in the use of mother tongue for practical daily purposes. The English teacher can not in an hour a day offset the bad habits of speech acquired during all other waking hours; it is unreasonable to expect her to do so. The only remedy that I can conceive is along the line here indicated. Daily, hourly drill in correct English is absolutely necessary, if the school is ever really to correct the bad habits of speech of average pupils. "It is simply school-boy human nature to give you as slovenly and inaccurately written and spoken English as you will accept. Exact any standard, all of you as one teacher, and you will get it."

The results were very gratifying and most of the teachers of science, mathematics, history, and Latin, as well as of English, voted unanimously in favor of the plan. The principals were also pleased, as is evidenced by the following from Principal Fletcher, of the Jamestown High School:

We have done enough to satisfy me that the plan is workable, and that it has in it the possibility of very great good to the pupil as well as ultimately a saving of time and strength to the teacher. The difficulty will be to get teachers to follow up the system with persistency and good judgment. Where supervising officers will see to it that this is done, the result can hardly fail to be of great value.

Stenographic reports of the recitations conducted during the course of the experiment serve to support the views of the teachers and principals. Mr. Congdon concludes that two things seem essential to the success of such a plan of cooperation: "(1) A simplicity of standards such that their observance can become habitual to both teacher and pupils; and (2) almost absolute uniformity in their enforcement by all teachers of the school."

More recently a plan of cooperation in the teaching of English was worked out by a committee of the California Association of Teachers of English in cooperation with the commissioner of secondary education of the State department. This plan is as follows:

1. Principals should use all possible methods for emphasizing the general need of good English. The methods should include talks to entrants, teachers' meetings, and other devices suggested below.

2. Principals should consider the English acquirements of each teacher before recommending him to the appointing power. In general, power of effective expression, oral and written, should be demanded of every teacher in the school. Where, as in the case of certain manual crafts, there is as yet but a small supply of academically trained teachers, every effort should be made to stiffen the demand for manual arts teachers with satisfactory English training.

3. All teachers in all subjects should be required to demand good English, oral and written, and the principal in his periodic classroom visit should insure compliance with this requirement. The principal, in his visits, should take notice of such points as are suggested below, and as may be contained in future letters from this association; and he should demand compliance with the general cooperative scheme. Unless he follows up his visits with the proper enforcement of his demands, no good will be gained. Wherever the time of the principal permits, regular visits for this purpose should be made.

4. In all subjects all papers that are deficient in the mechanics of good expression should be rejected, and individual cases of repeated rejection should be reported to the English department. By the "mechanics of expression" is meant form of manuscript, spelling, elementary punctuation, elementary syntax, penmanship, and paragraph marking.

Alternative to 4. All teachers should make a written statement on each paper of which the English expression is unsatisfactory, should lower the grade of the paper therefor, and report all such statements periodically to the principal and the English department.

5. All students reported under 4 should be given extra English drill, in addition to their regular courses, until all their teachers shall have certified to satisfactory habits of written expression. This extra English drill should not be called the "hospital class," because of the stigma of the name. It should be called an "ungraded class," or "English drill class," or "special English class." In the small school this extra drill should be done largely through individual consultation. In the large school it might be done in small sections,

in order to avoid conflicts in studies. Individual consultation should always play a large part in this extra drill. The teacher who has charge of this drill should be chosen very carefully, for his sympathy with backward and stubborn children, for his effectiveness as a drillmaster, and with reference to the time he can legitimately be asked to give to this work. Such classes or consultations should be counted as a component part of the teacher's work, not as extra work. Care should be taken to prevent instructors in regular classes making use of this special English in order to shift responsibility. Commercial classes can sometimes be used for this special drill. The drill should consist of spelling, punctuation, syntax, definition of words, grammar, dictation, paragraph writing, and speaking.

6. Topical recitations should be required in all subjects, and students who are deficient in oral English should be sent for special drill, as under 4 and 5. Fluent and idiomatic English should be required in translating from foreign languages.

7. A uniform scheme for arranging written work and a uniform system of corrections should be provided. Lists of common errors in grammar, syntax, spelling, punctuation, etc., should also be supplied to all teachers, so that there may be some common understanding of what constitutes "unsatisfactory expression." From time to time this association will compile and distribute lists of suggestions covering these points. See the "First List of Practical Suggestions" printed below.

8. Upon recommendation of teachers concerned, specially good themes in departments other than English may be submitted by the student to the English department for credit, to take the place of regular English themes; and themes assigned by the English department on subjects suggested by other departments may, on the recommendation of the English teacher, be submitted to other departments for credit, to take the place of regular themes in the other departments. But no student should write less than one theme each month.

9. Twice each term all teachers in all subjects should report the common English errors they have observed to the English department. From these reports the English department should make up a general list and send it to all teachers, who thereafter should be particularly careful to report all students who commit such errors with undue frequency.

NOTE.—It should be observed that, with the exception of the extra drill classes, the above recommendations require of the teacher nothing more in the way of new work than the filing of certain reports and the constant insistence upon good English.

The English teachers of New York city have, in similar fashion, prepared a series of recommendations, which are set forth in the bulletin of that association for May, 1915. The principal recommendations of the committee are as follows:

ENGLISH TEACHERS.

To the English teacher we recommend that he continue to employ the methods whereby he has tried to spread the effects of his teaching over his pupils' life; such as (*a*) assigning themes from the subject matter of other courses taken in school, (*b*) introducing subjects from every-day life with the purpose of impressing the student with the idea that English is a tool for use as well in every business and profession as in every school department, (*c*) convincing students of the English teacher's interest in their habitual use of the mother tongue by inquiring from other teachers of the work done in history, science, and so on, and by reading and criticizing such papers and notebooks occasionally, (*d*) considering special problems which confront the pupil in preparing

his work in other departments (such as a history outline or the record of an experiment in science) and giving him proper training therefor, and (*e*) wherever it is practicable, taking at frequent but irregular intervals whole sets of papers in other subjects in lieu of composition assignments in the English class.

OTHER TEACHERS.

To the teacher of another department desirous of cooperating with English teachers to secure better written and spoken English from his pupils we offer the following list of specifications as a definition of the uniform standard to which pupils are expected to measure up. We should like to emphasize the suggestions concerning oral work. Cooperation should not be restricted to noting violations of good usage. It should aim to develop the most effective use of language possible. The effort should not stop short of connected discourse. The boy or girl will never think with perfect clarity until he or she learns to express ideas in lucid language.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COOPERATION.

In Oral Work.

1. Insist on clear speaking. The student should stand erect, with head up, and speak with sufficient clearness to be understood in all parts of the room.
2. Insist on exactness. Require that the answer match the specific question asked. Do not say, "I know what you mean. It is this way." Lead him to employ words that will express his meaning with some approach to precision.
3. Insist on full answers. Resist the temptation to accept piecemeal replies. Where such a regulation is not too artificial, frequently require the pupil to explain in complete sentences what he means. Encourage the pupil so to organize his material that he can speak two or more minutes in elucidation of his ideas.
4. Insist on correctness. Do not accept "ain't" for "isn't," "don't" for "doesn't," "this here," "those sort," or similar ungrammatical or unidiomatic expressions. Be careful to secure the proper use of the tenses, especially of the present tense.

In Written Work.

1. Require the uniform heading. The faculty in each school should reach an agreement concerning the heading to be required of all pupils in all their written work.
2. Insist on neatness in both handwriting and arrangement.
3. Require correct spelling, not only of words in your subject, but of all common English words. To call attention to such errors will not be sufficient, unless the pupil is made to feel that he can not safely repeat the error.
4. Insist on clear sentence structure. Sprawling or incoherent sentences should be pointed out to the student. He will soon learn that he must exercise the same care in his other writing that the English teacher exacts in his themes.
5. Require such punctuation as will make the sentence clear at a single reading, especially the proper use of the period and the question mark. The faculty might well agree on a few of the important rules for the comma to be enforced in all writing.

6. Reject summarily all reports, papers, and notebooks obviously deficient in the elements of decent English and good form noted above.

SUPERVISORY OFFICERS.

Of principals and chairmen of departments we urgently request that they devote a part of their supervision specifically to this matter of cooperation and that they commend effective cooperation wherever they find it. Even the most enthusiastic teacher will not long continue to spend extra time and care in giving his pupils a more practical command of English if he does not from time to time receive encouragement. His weaker brother and sister will hardly make a beginning. Certainly, without praise there will be no concerted effort within the department, no uniform maintaining of standards within the school in this matter so vital to the pupil's development and future career. On the other hand, judicious praise for attention paid to these matters will lead to increased devotion to the pupils' welfare.

EXAMINATIONS.

To the principal of each school we recommend that he promulgate the following rule for all examinations in subjects other than English: "On all papers marked 60 or above the teacher grading the paper shall give an additional credit, up to five points, for notably good English." Such a regulation will stimulate the pupil to more conscientious efforts to improve his English in all classes. It will also encourage the teacher. Under present conditions his incentive to cooperate is the hope that his work of this term will bear fruit in greater power for his pupils in the long years that follow school. Under the proposed ruling he would have the satisfaction of a more direct and immediate reward for his labors. Indeed, without the incentive furnished by such a regulation the committee sees no prospect among our teachers for any but sporadic efforts at cooperation.

The recommendations of the committee are supported by a series of reports from teachers of various subjects other than English as to the possibilities of cooperation in those subjects. In the case of Latin, cooperation in vocabulary is especially emphasized; in the case of history, the organization of oral and written recitations.

The plans of the New York teachers may be more clearly understood by the reading of the following letter from Mr. Frederick H. Law, head of the department of English in the Stuyvesant High School:

About two years ago our English department placed on exhibition about 3,000 term compositions written in strict correlation with other studies than English. The subjects chosen were selected by the pupils, after consultation with English teachers and teachers of other subjects. The compositions represented every type of work taken up in our school, which, as you may know, is a technical and scientific high school. The work represented narration, description, exposition and argumentation. A few of the subjects are given below as typical of the great mass:

The part that chemistry plays in life.
Autobiography of an electron.
A visit to a soap factory.
The adventures of a drawing board.

How to make a drawing outfit.
Why I studied drawing.
The story of a piece of iron.
The tumbler as part of the foundry.
How to obtain wrought iron.
Dan Carroll's experience in German.
A picture of a German village.
How Jimmy learned French.
Modern languages vs. the classical.
Humorous scenes in the "gymn."
Jimmy's experience on the ropes.
The art of rope climbing.
The structure of the teeth.
The biology laboratory.
The laughing stock of the gymnasium.
Basketball vs. football.
Horatius at the bridge.
Pickett's charge.
The Roman forum.
The meaning of civics.
American representation vs. English representation.
The bad boy receives a scolding in "math."
How to find the height of trees.
My first week in the math. room.
Do "pretty" boys excel in mathematics?
The autobiography of a screw.
The speed lathe.
How I made a fly-wheel pattern.
The gas engine vs. the steam engine.
The adventures of a wireless set.
The four-cycle marine engine.
The manufacture of ice.
Pumping out a flooded mine.
From forest to home.
A shop teacher's mistake.
Chair making.
The growth of a tree.
The joinery course in Stuyvesant.

The essays were for the most part illustrated with plans, drawings, and inserted pictures. All had heavy covers with original artistic designs by the writers of the essays.

A year ago we broadened the field of our cooperative work by allowing students to write on topics in connection with the work, trade, or profession they would follow in mature life. This year we broadened still more and allow topics taken from current events. The result of our work has been satisfactory in many ways.

Some time ago I carried out a most interesting experiment in having a group of students write on "Altruistic work in the neighborhood of the Stuyvesant High School." We allowed no two students to write on the same topic. A very great deal of active work ensued, and about 40 topics were written on. The ethical value of this work was remarkably great.

We have two groups of "cooperative" students now. Their work in English is different from the work of any other students in the school. All the work is in strict correlation with the work the students are now taking up in school

other than English, and in correlation with the work the students are to carry on in life. With these students we have much of the long, formal report of the type given to the city of New York in the different city technical departments. For six months our students presented such reports every Monday, the reports covering all the work done by the students while at work outside the school in technical work for the city during the week preceding. On every Tuesday we asked these students to present about 20 technical words with clear definitions and illustrations, presenting all this on library cards for filing in card trays that our school supplied for the purpose. By this means every student made for himself a technical dictionary of about 500 terms, and no two students had the same list of words. On every Wednesday we asked the students to present letters of about 20 different types, written with much regard for form. The subjects written about were always technical or scientific and in touch with the student's work. On every Thursday we read from scientific and technical literature, using Bird's "Modern Science Reader," Huxley's addresses, and books of that sort. One day a week we gave to oral reports of technical work. All our work in English was carried on after consultation with teachers of other subjects. We followed this work by adding lectures by pupils on the world's leading scientists and technical workers of all ages; by adding readings from current literature and periodicals, always emphasing the technical; by having the students prepare their own techincal rhetorics, basing their work on readings and discussions in class; by making close study of business forms such as contracts, specifications, bids, estimates, etc., and by making a general study of technical English.

The result of our work has been most gratifying. It has stimulated interest, made work more akin to pleasure, and has increased the value of the work done.

It is clear that there is a widespread opinion to the effect that definite plans of cooperation between the department of English and the other departments of the school are essential not merely for the sake of the teacher of English but for the sake of the pupil and of the other departments. Such cooperation will not lessen the labors of the English teacher, but will render his work effective. The mere dumping of the written papers in history, science, etc., upon the English teacher is in no sense cooperation. On the other hand, mere nagging of the pupil as to his mispronunciations and grammatical errors in all classes fails to touch the most vital matters. The essence of cooperation is harmonious effort to train pupils in the art of study—that is, of thinking—and in the art of expression—that is, communication of ideas. There is no essential difference between the problem of preparing an oral or a written composition and the problem of preparing to recite a lesson in history or in science. Cooperation, to be worthy the name, must involve the fundamentals of intellectual training, not merely the more mechanical aspects of speech and writing.

Probably the most effective single device for making the work of the English teacher permanent is that of regarding the credits in English as probationary, subject to withdrawal at any time if the pupil permits himself to become careless in his speech or writing.

If each pupil in the school knows that he may at any time be remanded to the English department for special treatment, he will not willingly become a candidate for the "hospital."[1]

4. DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS.

The amazing increase of attendance upon the public high school, combined with the general extension of the course in English over the entire high-school period, has congested the classes of the English teachers, especially in the large city, almost beyond endurance. From Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago come reports showing that it is common to assign to a single English teacher 5 or 6 classes, each containing from 30 to 40 pupils. When we remember that the success of the English work depends, especially in the case of composition, very largely upon individual guidance and adequate attention to the written papers, we can see that the assignment of such overwhelming numbers to the English teacher is fatal to results. It certainly need not be pointed out that it is destructive of the teacher's health.

These conditions are not wholly necessary. Careful investigations carried on by the committee on the labor and cost of English teaching, a committee working under the joint direction of the Modern Language Association of America and the National Council of Teachers of English, show that relatively the cost of English is less than any other subject in the curriculum. The average annual teaching cost for each pupil of English in the country is about $7. In mathematics it is 23 per cent more; in Latin, 42 per cent more; in German, 36 per cent; in history, 18 per cent more; in science, 75 per cent more; in chemistry alone, 170 per cent more. The average number of pupils assigned to a teacher in English is found to be about 130; in German, 99; in mathematics, 115; in history, 115; in Latin, 96; in science, 80; in chemistry alone, 66. The figures for shop work will be found, both in the matter of cost and in the assignment to the teacher, relatively more favorable to that subject than in the case of those just listed. It is evident that the number of pupils assigned to the teacher in English could be lessened by from 50 to 75 per cent without increasing the cost of that subject over some of the others in the high-school curriculum. Certainly no one would contend that instruction in science is of greater value to the pupils of a democracy than instruction in our language and literature. Nor would anyone who is familiar with modern methods of instruction contend that individual work in the laboratory is any more essential in the work in science than similar individual attention in the case of English. The fact is

[1] See Charters, W. W. A Spelling "Hospital" in High School. School Review, 18: 192, March, 1910.

merely that a tradition has been built up in favor of small classes with adequate apparatus in the case of science, while no similar tradition has become current in the case of English. It is hoped that the careful investigations carried on by the committee under the direction of Prof. Hopkins which, in preliminary form,[1] have already been widely published in several States, and which will ultimately appear in the form of a bulletin of the Bureau of Education, will bear fruit in the reduction, both in the number and in the size, of classes in English. Indeed, the earnest of such a reform is seen in the case of cities like Grand Rapids, which has already reduced the number and size of English classes, and in the State of North Dakota, which has done likewise. How general and profound the feeling is that this should be accomplished, is shown in the following resolution, which was unanimously passed at the third annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English held in Chicago in November, 1913:

> The National Council of Teachers of English approves the steps taken by the North Central Association to limit and decrease the number of pupils assigned to English teachers in high schools, and requests the association and all similar accrediting bodies to recommend for immediate action that schools in which the maximum number of pupils assigned to a single English teacher exceeds 100 be not accredited in English; and it also requests the association and all similar accrediting bodies to take further action at as early a date as seems expedient to reduce this maximum to 80, with due provision, as at present recommended, for necessary time for conference and theme reading counted as teaching time.

5. EXTRA CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES.

The burden of the English teacher is in most schools increased by certain extra classroom activities that are fully as important in their way as the regular recitations. These include dramatics, the school paper, and various club activities, such as debating, speaking of pieces, and the like. To these is often added a good deal of responsibility for the work of the pupils in the library.

The importance of high-school dramatics and the festival is now becoming well understood. The drama is primarily a thing to be acted, not merely to be read, and hence full appreciation of it demands production, or at least, the witnessing of production upon the stage. Moreover, there are personal and social values to be realized through production which can come in no other way. When the members of a class or several classes combine their forces, appoint committees, carry on rehearsals, criticize results, all under direction but still with individual initiative and freedom, they attain to social power which the recitation in the classroom can never produce. Moreover, it is the duty of the school to prepare for the right use of

[1] Issued by the Department of Journalism Press, University of Kansas, 5 cents, postpaid.

leisure as well as for occupation. More and more the theater and its counterpart, the moving-picture play, are becoming the chief source of entertainment of our people. The school, therefore, must undertake to raise the standard of such performances and to increase the appreciation of the best there may be in them. This the school must undertake to do. That the influence of the school may be far-reaching, even to the extent of raising the standard of plays offered to the public, there can be no question.

The value of school dramatics has been well summed up by the committee of the National Council of Teachers of English on plays, under the chairmanship of the late Thacher Guild. In the report of the committee made in November, 1914, and published in the English Journal for January, 1915, appears the following summary:

A. The aims of such study should be:
   1. To develop the power of discrimination which enables one to recognize in the best drama the enduring literary and artistic values.
   2. To develop a permanent interest in reading plays.
   3. To develop such artistic and emotional qualities as may be appropriately and successfully stimulated in the exercises of dramatic interpretation (i. e., reading and acting).
   4. To develop a spirit of active and intelligent interest in contemporary dramatic entertainment.

B. The chief means of attaining these ends (in addition to a study of literary values) are:
   1. In the study of each play a proper consideration of its dramatic values; emphasis on the need of visualization; recognition of the relation of the play to the theater of its period and to the general development of the drama.
   2. Wider reading of plays, including foreign and contemporary drama; such plays to be assigned or suggested by each teacher according to circumstances.
   3. Exercises in arranging tableaux and dramatizing scenes from assigned reading.
   4. Definite correlation of the school or class dramatics with the regular work in literature and public speaking, recognizing always, of course, that such productions must be thoroughly entertaining if they are not to defeat their own educational purpose.
   5. Some consecutive study, preferably in the upper classes, of the development of the drama, with definite consideration of the relation of the contemporary drama to literature and to society.
   6. Encouragement and supervision of attendance on dramatic entertainments, with a view to discussion of values and with special reference to the problem of developing the pupils' taste by utilizing their manifest natural interest.

C. The committee recognizes the fact that teachers (especially outside of the city schools) may find it difficult to adopt some of these measures, through (1) lack of special training, (2) lack of opportunity to study the acted drama, and (3) lack of a suitable library. It is none the less desirable to adopt these standards and to attempt to meet the special problems as they arise.

D. The committee feels that in teaching drama in the schools one should plan the work so as to take advantage of the natural interest of the pupils and to preserve in their minds an active sense of the vitality of the art.

The proper handling of the school play requires financial organization, which ought to come under the direction of the budget committee of the school as a whole. It involves, also, the handling of crowds, and hence ushering and other duties attendant upon public audience. It demands, too, certain architectural features that are only beginning to be provided in the American high school. These are particularly a suitable stage, with lighting and dressing rooms, an account of which will be found in a very suggestive article by Walter H. Nichols, which appeared in the English Journal for December, 1914. He points out that from 15 to 30 two-hour rehearsals may be necessary for a successful play to be given publicly, and that for such rehearsals adequate conveniences must be provided. These should include something akin to the old-fashioned greenroom, with halls leading to the dressing rooms on each side, and a revolving stage, which would cost very little more than a good automobile turntable. To these must be added the switchboard for color effects and proper curtains and flies.

Further details are to be found in an article by O. B. Sperlin, "The production of plays in high school," which appeared in the English Journal for March, 1916. He explains the process of constituting a committee of pupils and faculty to handle the box office and other business arrangements, and suggests that the money which is obtained be spent for articles of value to the entire school, such as paintings for the walls or books for the library.

An excellent presentation of other extra-classroom activities will be found in the English leaflet of the New England Association of Teachers of English, for November, 1915. The editor, Charles S. Thomas, emphasizes the value of the school paper in providing an incentive for better work in composition by offering the reward of publication. He thinks great care should be exercised in the acceptance of articles; only those clear in style, wholesome in humor, and original in treatment being allowed a place. The organization of the staff and the editing and the publishing of the paper will give play to a fine spirit of cooperation and will result in the development of efficiency.

Mr. Thomas argues also for the value of debating, provided that it is genuine and informal. He evidently favors contests of the type made famous at Lake Forest College, in which the speakers have a limited time to prepare themselves and must be ready to speak on either side of the question. In this case it is good organization of

the school as a whole, and not mere drilling by the coach, which insures success.

Many of those now prominent in public life received their first impetus in the literary society of their high school or college. If nothing more is possible, the class itself, as has been done by one teacher in the Central High School of Kansas City, for example, may be organized into a club and may hold occasional meetings for discussion, recitation, and the presentation of original pieces. The provision for all this becomes ultimately an administrative question, and requires both sympathy and good judgment on the part of the principal or other administrative officer.

6. VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE THROUGH COMPOSITION.

It seems to be generally agreed that pupils in the junior and senior high schools should obtain such an outlook on the various vocations as will give motive to their school work and at the same time save them from drifting unintelligently into some occupation of which they happen to have knowledge. This outlook is to be obtained, however, not by pursuing a school study known as vocational guidance, but by giving due attention to vocations in the appropriate subjects now in the curriculum. Because of the fact that English composition employs of necessity a large body of interesting and valuable content, this subject lends itself particularly to the study of occupations. The following suggestive outline of work, which was compiled by the English teachers of the Central High School of Grand Rapids, will serve to set forth the possibilities.[1]

SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES.

The vocational guidance work of the seventh and eighth grades is taught in connection with English and geography; and all of the exercises are for composition, either oral or written. They cover such subjects as occupations, simple biography, and the value of an education. The pupil is not marked on how much he knows of those subjects, but on how well he tells what he knows. All the exercises have proved of interest to the pupils, and have filled a long-felt want among teachers of composition, because the subjects seem to be vital and enlarge the horizons of the class. The study of some occupations is less likely to interest the girls.

A few general subjects under the study of occupations are the following: (1) The study of a home occupation; (2) this occupation compared with the same occupation in foreign countries; (3) the account of a trip through some manufacturing plant, office building, or store.

[1] See also Davis, Jesse P. Vocational and Moral Guidance.

Sample exercise:

The Comparative Study of an Occupation.

1. In what foreign countries can this occupation be found?
2. How does the occupation in these other countries differ from it as I know it?
3. Where should I especially like to live to follow it? Why?
   (*a*) Is the country healthier?
   (*b*) Does the country give me more opportunity to expand my occupation?

A few subjects under the study of biography are these: (1) The life of a successful celebrated person (this should be read to the class by the teacher). (2) The life of a successful person whom the pupil knows. (3) The life of the pupil himself.

Sample exercise:

The Life of a Successful Person.

1. When and where did ———— live?
2. What work did he do?
3. What was the most important point in his life?
4. What pleasures did he have?
5. What made his work successful?
6. Did he render service to his fellow men?
7. Did he live by any law or motto or aim of his own? What was his guide (law, motto, aim), and was it a good one or not? Why?

Sample subjects that may follow the pupil's life are as follows: (1) How I earned my first money. (2) How I spend my Saturdays. (3) My first real work.

To show the value of an education, the following subjects are good: (1) A talk by some young person who has returned to school after being out for a period, on "Why I left school" or "Why I came back to school." (2) What people I know say about the value of an education. (3) What I could do if I left school now. (4) What other young people have done who have left school at the end of the eighth grade. (5) Wages of eighth-grade graduates compared with the wages of high-school graduates. (6) What a family has done (this is taken from an article in the Outlook of August 26, 1911).

NINTH GRADE.

In the ninth grade the study becomes personal, and enters into more elaborate biography. Perhaps the first exercises will be as follows:

My ancestors: Where they came from, why they came to this country, whether or not they had to contend with hardships, what they have done here.

My parents: Early life; hardships; occupation, its difficulties and advantages. What have they done for their children?

Myself: My childhood; my school life; any uncommonly good fortune, or bad, that has befallen me; my pleasures; my favorite studies; my ambitions; my health; etc.

These essays will serve not only to draw the pupil out and secure natural expression, but also to establish a personal and intimate relation between pupil and teacher. The teacher should hold the information gained in this way as a privileged communication. The school spirit of the pupil may be transformed by it.

"Morals and manners" can well be added to this in a series of essays, in which, with the true spirit of comedy, the undesirable is shown its own image in the glass of nature. Monologues and dialogues give a fit form. The subjects presenting the person with bad manners are inexhaustible: (1) In the street car. (2) At the theater. (3) On the playground. (4.) Buying a hat. (5) Telling a fish story. (6) Gossiping with a neighbor. The healthy humor of the mimicry does much to make the class one.

"Health and hygiene" also adds a stimulating subject for composition, as well as for better living among the children. Some of the subjects given are: The value of open-air life; exercise; proper amount of sleep; food values; bathing; neatness of person.

Among the biographies most useful in this grade are those of Helen Keller, Jacob Riis, Booker T. Washington, Phillips Brooks, Jane Addams, Alice Freeman Palmer, Mary Lyon, and Thomas Edison, an essential element in whose success is that it was often attained without advantage at the start of life. Most of this work is oral.

TENTH GRADE.

In the tenth grade a great number of occupations are listed at the suggestion of the class, perhaps because the members have some special opportunity for knowing them; then each pupil presents one orally, or in written composition, helped in his preparation by means of an outline. Sometimes this offers opportunity to do research work. One girl listed 350 occupations for women, and the salaries paid each. Her method was to take the lists of the telephone directory and call up the people whose names she found, and then to ask what she wanted to know. Ingenuity will invent other methods. Others obtained their facts from relatives or friends who knew the occupation.

Suggested outline: The vocation—(1) Its character, its present status, its future, its healthfulness, the kind of life it compels as to hours and other conditions, its effect upon one's personal development, its opportunity for service to the community. (2) The preparation necessary for entering the vocation (general requirements, natural ability or skill, education, special training), the means of entering it (apprenticeship, working up, schooling, local chances of an opening). (3) Sidelights on the vocation (opinions of those in it at present,

statistical reports, laws affecting the vocation, periodicals and books discussing it, personal observation).

In the second half of this year some of the pupils will be ready to study some occupation that they expect to enter. Those who have no definite occupation in mind will choose one under the guidance of the teacher that has some special interest to him. An outline can be given by the teacher to aid the pupil in his investigations.

My own vocation: (1) Origin or history. (2) Modern conditions (as in preceding outline). (3) Good points and bad points (degree of independence, permanence, importance, remuneration—money or pleasure in the work itself, or in social returns). (4) How to enter it (preparation, cost, length of time for study). (5) Characteristics necessary to success.

This last will require self-analysis of a limited kind, as well as analysis of men who have succeeded in the occupation. The self-analysis should be strictly confidential. Here it may be possible to save some one who habitually fails in mathematics from entering engineering because a hero or relative has succeeded in it, or because father or mother are ambitious that he shall succeed in it.

ELEVENTH GRADE.

Now that the vocations have been considered, the preparation becomes important, and schools and colleges may be studied. There are various kinds to consider, among which are the industrial, professional, and purely literary; art schools, manual-training schools, schools for physical training, etc. Each pupil should take a special interest in some school and look it up through its catalogues and by interviews with graduates, and compare it with other schools of the same kind. The small college versus the large, coeducation versus separate schools for men and women, eastern colleges versus western, native versus foreign—all of these are good subjects for discussion and debate. This information as to the ideals of the colleges and the conditions of student life is soon to be of great value to the students in deciding on their college course. The subjects required for college entrance and other conditions must be ascertained and pupils' own programs inspected to see whether their own work is properly mapped out to satisfy the colleges.

In the second half of the year the ethics of the vocations are considered. Girls who are not going to college and have no special choice study problems of domestic life—the relation of mistress and servant, expenditure, gossip, treatment of clerks in the stores, proper dress, and buying good articles in providing household supplies. Those who have definite plans consider the moral codes of the professions and business life. The subject is inexhaustible. Here are debated the ethics that inspired the founders of the Consumers' League,

Anti-Saloon League, and other leagues for the betterment of social conditions.

TWELFTH GRADE.

When the occupations of the business and professional world have been studied, to which most men devote their lives and by which they earn their living, it is well to single out for special study those which are distinguished as supported by and for the people because they are necessary for the public well-being and the betterment of society. Soon most of the pupils in this grade will be earning their own living, and paying either by taxes or by gift for the maintenance of public institutions.

Public institutions maintained by taxes will supply subjects for the first half year, and those maintained by subscription for the second. The result of the year's study must be a growth in public spirit, a willingness to give support by seeking occupation in one of the institutions, by contributing in money and mind, by the aid of a vote or sympathy. "Each for all" is the unconscious teaching and a return to the State and society for benefits received. When they are asked, "What institutions does the State maintain for its people, opening occupations to some of its citizens?" the class will readily suggest a long list, beginning with the police department and ending with the Army and Navy. In ten minutes the list will contain more institutions than are sufficient to supply subjects for the individuals of the class. It will include the board of health, city hospitals, fire commission, water supply, weather bureau—an indefinite list. This is swelled by the institutions which the State charters and in a fashion directs, such as insurance companies, railroads, trusts, etc. These subjects are excellent for exercising the pupil in research work. He has now reached a stage where it is well for him to collect and organize a large body of facts independently. His material will be obtained from the reference library, by personal visits for inspection of the institutions studied and interviews with the officials, or by any other means that ingenuity can devise. The organization of this body of material and the writing of a manuscript in the best possible form, with footnotes, a bibliography, and an outline—this is a labor to stimulate the pupil to his highest efforts.

7. PREPARATION OF TEACHERS.

The most difficult administrative problem, in the presence of which all others seem insignificant, is, of course, that of securing properly trained teachers. The number of school authorities who still believe that anybody can teach English is fortunately growing small. It is now generally recognized that the giving of instruction in the

vernacular is not only the most important but probably also the most difficult task in the high school. To take in hand young people from homes of culture, of little culture, and of almost no culture at all and undertake to present them at the end of the high-school course capable of speaking and writing with clearness and correctness and of reading with intelligence and appreciation is a daring feat at best. The experienced know that only an approximation to success is possible.

The difficulty is that mastery of English does not consist in the learning of facts and rules nor in mere mechanical skill. Communication is an art, and whether it be approached constructively or interpretatively it must be treated from the standpoint of art. This precludes the leaning heavily upon the textbook, which, at the best, can be only a laboratory guide or a book of reference. The constructive activity of the pupil in reorganizing his own experience in order to appeal to an audience or to realize the meaning of what another has written—this, and this alone, is what really counts. Now, the inducing and guiding of genuine constructive activity is not a task for greenhorns. It is, indeed, not a task for the mere scholar accustomed to having bodies of facts presented in lecture form from the teacher's desk. It requires knowledge, but also skill—skill in using that knowledge in the guidance of others.

The main facts with regard to the preparation of the teachers of English who are now in service may readily be gathered from the report of a committee of the National Council of Teachers of English which appeared in the English Journal for May, 1915. This committee, under the direction of Prof. Franklin T. Baker, of Teachers College, Columbia University, assisted by a committee of the Illinois Association of Teachers of English, under the chairmanship of Prof. Harry G. Paul, sent out some 1,500 copies of a questionnaire, to which 450 answers were received. From these it appears that about 90 per cent of high-school teachers of English have a college degree. Twenty-five per cent have the master's degree. About half of those replying have specialized in English to the extent of taking five or more English courses in college. There is, however, no clear consensus as to the relative value of the courses taken. About 50 per cent have had some special training in the teaching of English. This is generally regarded as helpful. The same could not be said, however, for the courses in education in general, which were declared to be frequently too theoretical. Among other subjects, the languages were regarded as most valuable, with history as a close second. The report as a whole indicates that as yet the question as to what constitutes the best preparation for the English teacher has not been widely or thoroughly considered.

Some institutions, however, have organized very definite plans for such preparation. An example of this is seen in the case of the University of Southern California, whose course is set forth at length by the professor in charge, Allison Gaw, in an article in the English Journal for May, 1916. This provides four college years and a graduate year, in which provision is made for extensive studies in English, foreign languages, history, public speaking, philosophy, and education, together with a special course in the teaching of high-school English, continuing three hours a week throughout the graduate year. This is accompanied by practice teaching four periods a week and by a course in school management two periods a week.

Inasmuch as almost all the larger colleges and universities of the country have begun to offer special courses for the training of high-school teachers, particularly in their summer sessions, it seems likely that in the near future such courses may become reasonably standardized. That they should include (1) studies in the nature and elements of the various literary types, in addition to a broad reading knowledge of English and American literature, (2) sufficient training in oral and written composition, including public speaking, (3) a course in the application of educational principles to the teaching of English in the high school, and (4) actual practice under direction, may safely be affirmed. Preliminary steps have been taken in certain States to demand specific professional training of all high-school teachers, and it is certain that it is only a question of time until this will be a common practice.

Doubtless this result will be hastened by the recent action of the University of California, which has established a degree for teachers known as graduate in education. This will be conferred upon the successful completion of the following requirements:

1. Not less than four years of successful professional experience.
2. Two full years of graduate study, one of which must have been spent at the University of California.
3. A minimum of 36 units of upper-division major and graduate work, distributed as follows:
   - (a) A minimum of 12 units of courses in education based on a "group elective" in education, or on its equivalent, and including at least four units of seminar work during the second year, this 12 units, together with professional experience and a professional thesis, to constitute the candidate's "major."
   - (b) A minimum of 12 units of advanced work in a minor.
   - (c) A professional thesis and an examination, both to be under the direction of the school of education, and both to be subject to the usual rules of the committee on higher degrees.

8. TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE.

Clarence D. Kingsley, High School Inspector, Massachusetts Board of Education, makes the following suggestion regarding the need for State directors of high-school English:

No system of high-school education may be regarded as complete unless adequate provision is made for the continued training of teachers after they have entered upon their work. Even after the teacher has secured the best possible preliminary training, many problems will arise upon which he needs the advice of an experienced teacher. Consequently, it is recommended that each State department add to its force a specialist in the teaching of high-school English. This specialist would:

(*a*) Visit English teachers in their classrooms so as to discover their individual problems.

(*b*) Confer with groups of teachers regarding common problems.

(*c*) Issue bulletins embodying the results of successful experimentation, giving references to useful material.

(*d*) Revise from time to time State manuals on the teaching of English.

The assistance of such State directors is needed especially by teachers in smaller high schools, inasmuch as these teachers have no one to whom they may look for expert detailed advice. Even in the larger high schools where several persons are teaching English, these State directors could give much valuable assistance because they would be familiar with methods and material used successfully in other high schools.

Under an ideal scheme some arrangement could be made whereby these State directors of English could, in alternate years, serve as instructors in institutions preparing teachers of English. In this way they would bring to the preparation of teachers an intimate knowledge of the needs of the schools, and during the years in which they were acting as field agents they would know what preliminary training the teachers had received.

9. CLASSROOM EQUIPMENT.

The trained teacher, like Mark Hopkins, may be able to succeed with no apparatus but a log. There is no reason, however, why he should be required to get on with such limited equipment. A recent investigation by a committee of the Illinois Association of Teachers of English shows that in the best schools he has a great deal in addition to his desk and chair. This committee reports as follows:

Excluding schools outside of the State, 135 high schools were addressed. Forty-five of these had enrollments of less than 150, 30 of less than 300, 25 of less than 600, and 30 had enrollments ranging from 600 to 2,000. Seventy-one replies were received (55 per cent); 26 of Class I, 16 of Class II, 16 of Class III, and 12 of Class IV responded.

Recitation rooms.—Only 25 per cent of Class I have a separate recitation room for English work, and but 50 per cent of Class II. In one school of Class IV, having an enrollment of 900, the English recitations are held in whatever room the pupils are seated for study, the teachers passing from room to room. This method, however, is uncommon. The seating capacity of the recitation room averaged 30.

Committee and rehearsal rooms.—Thirty-three per cent have a room, or rooms, suitable for committee, debate teams, or dramatic practice. Only 10 per cent of these are near or adjoin the English recitation rooms.

Dramatic facilities.—	Per cent.
A. Stage in assembly room	70
B. Dressing rooms adjoining	25
C. Footlights	48
D. Curtain	40
E. Scenic properties	20
F. Furniture properties	25
G. Costumes	--

Fourteen per cent have a smaller room equipped with a platform in which less ambitious dramatic work may be done before a small audience.

Filing cabinets.—The filing cabinet is just beginning to gain ground. Eight per cent use the cabinet for filing themes, 5 per cent for individual home-reading cards, 7 per cent for consultation cards, 12 per cent for topical clippings from periodicals, 18 per cent for illustrative pictures for class use, 35 per cent for course outlines for teachers' guidance, and 27 per cent for class grade cards.

Maps.—Sixty-five per cent have in the recitation room a map of America, 78 per cent a map of England, 28 per cent a literary map of Scotland.

Notebooks.—The laboratory size, loose-leaf notebooks are used in 60 per cent of the schools, with ruled paper about 8 by 10 inches in dimension; 90 per cent of the schools use ruled paper; 45 per cent ask the pupil to provide a small pocket notebook for assignments.

Lanterns.—Twenty per cent have projection lanterns; 30 per cent stereopticons.

Moving-picture machines.—Only 2 of the 71 schools responding have moving-picture machines.

Victrolas.—Fifty per cent have a Victrola or similar machine, a rather large average.

Duplicator or mimeograph.—Eighty-five per cent have either one or both of these devices.

Typewriters.—Ten per cent have a typewriter for the exclusive use of the English department.

Bookcases.—Sixty per cent of the recitation rooms are equipped with bookcases.

Teachers' desks.—Ninety-five per cent of the English teachers have an individual desk.

The committee recommends the following as essentials in the equipment of any high school:

1. One or more recitation rooms properly equipped for English.
2. A small stage with curtains, dressing rooms, etc.
3. A file for themes and other records.
4. Maps of England, America, and Europe.
5. Loose-leaf notebooks.
6. A projection lantern or stereopticon with slides.
7. A Victrola.
8. A duplicator.
9. A working library supervised intelligently.
10. Three magazines of general interest, four of technical nature; a daily newspaper.

11. A serviceable collection of books for home reading, at least one-fourth of contemporary authorship.
12. Several copies of the more useful reference books and one copy of the less valuable.
13. Filed pictures for illustrative class use.
14. A few attractive pictures for wall decoration and a few casts.
15. Writing materials in the recitation room.
16. Informal seating arrangements.
17. Devices of various sorts to make the recitation rooms attractive places for recitation, conference, and reading.[1]

That the providing of such equipment would not entail a cost out of proportion to that now common in the case of several other subjects is clearly shown in the report of the committee on English equipment which was presented to the National Council of Teachers of English in November, 1912.[2]

The following table sets forth the main facts:

Average teaching cost and equipment cost per pupil in the high schools reporting.

Subject.	Number schools reporting teaching cost.	Average teaching cost per pupil.	Number schools reporting equipment cost.	Equipment cost per pupil.	Average annual increase per pupil.
English	106	$7.80	63	$1.75	$0.06
Latin	104	9.44	55	1.02	.09
German	99	11.01	53	1.28	.12
French	27	9.84	10	1.75	.06
Mathematics	105	8.53	52	.75	.08
History	103	7.88	60	2.39	.22
Physics	95	12.59	63	19.71	1.30
Chemistry	84	14.96	58	23.49	1.44
Biology	86	9.17	64	9.02	.09
Domestic science	44	7.75	38	10.90	.02
Manual training	60	13.57	40	28.51	1.51
Commercial	78	10.17	38	4.55	.33
Physical geography	29	7.04	15	8.66	.36
Physiology	12	6.10	6	4.02	.23
Agriculture	9	15.40	5	10.75	4.50

From this table it appears that 10 of the 15 subjects reported on involve a larger equipment cost per pupil than English both in the total and in the average annual increase, though it can hardly be argued that these subjects are of greater value or that they require an equipment so disproportionally greater.

10. STANDARDS AND MEASURES OF ATTAINMENT.

In no respect has there been more rapid advance in the last decade than in the matter of setting up definite standards of attainment and the working out of objective measures of ability. For the most part, however, these have had their application rather to the elementary

[1] Information as to the carrying out of several of these recommendations will be found in an article by Miss Mary Crawford entitled The Laboratory Equipment of the Teacher of English, which appeared in the English Journal for March, 1915.

[2] See English Journal for March, 1913.

school than to the high school. There have been pleas for the determination of minimum standards in English,[1] and actual attempts have been made to set up such standards, as in the case of a committee of the Boston schools, under the chairmanship of Miss Carolyn Gerrish.[2] The findings of this committee were as follows:

A graduate of a high school should meet the following requirements:

A. He should have ability—

(1) To write original compositions—whether they be narration, description, exposition, or simple argument—that are logically planned and so developed as to be conspicuous for unity and coherence. The spelling and grammar should be correct and the punctuation adequate.

(2) To plan coherently and give fluently a five-minute talk on some practical subject on which he has had time to think.

(3) To write any common type of business or social letter with technical accuracy and with simplicity and directness.

(4) To find and organize material for an original composition of 1,000 words upon business, political, historical, literary, or scientific subjects.

(5) To read aloud, at sight, with intelligence and clear enunciation, anything from a newspaper to a classic of ordinary difficulty.

(6) To tell why a piece of literature (like a standard novel, or essay, or a lyric poem such as may be found in the Golden Treasury) has merit.

(7) To quote either orally or in writing 200 lines (not necessarily consecutive) of classic prose or poetry.

B. He should have a working knowledge of the course of both English and American literature, of their great names and great books, and of some of the most significant influences in history and life that have molded such literature.

C. In addition to regular prescribed work in literature he should have read (from A List of Books for Home Reading, prepared for the Latin and high schools by the English council, or from the college-entrance requirement list) four good books of short stories, five good novels, three good plays, two good biographies, two good books of history or travel.

The need of more definite standards for measuring results has been made evident by such investigations as those carried on by Starch and Eliot at the University of Wisconsin. It is now well known that an English composition submitted to a group of teachers will, in all probability, receive marks ranging in value from 60 to 95 on a scale of 100.[3] To reduce this variation, Profs. Hillegas and Thorndike worked out their now famous "Scale for the measurement of quality in English composition by young people." This, however, has not proved entirely successful in actual use, the chief difficulty being that the compositions are not typical of the work of pupils and are of widely varying types. In an attempt to overcome both these difficul-

[1] See Reynolds, Minimum Standards, English Journal, 4: 349, June, 1915.

[2] See Education, 36: 95, October, 1915.

[3] Starch, Daniel, and Eliot, Edward C. Reliability in the Grading of High-School Work in English. School Review, 20: 7, September, 1912. *See also* Kelly, F. J. Teachers' Marks: Their Variability and Standardization. Teachers College, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 66, 1914. Humphries, Florence Y. Effort vs. Accomplishment. English Journal, December, 1914.

ties "Scales for measurement of composition" were prepared by Frank W. Ballou and published in the Harvard-Newton Bulletin for September, 1914. These scales consist of groups of compositions from eighth-grade children, each representing a single type of writing, and representing different degrees of excellence, ranging from passing to very good. The relative value of these new scales is not yet established. A similar scale for the fourth year of the high school in the one field of descriptive writing has been worked out by Wirt G. Faust and appeared in the English Journal for April, 1916. The specimens in both of these scales are accompanied by definite notes as to their merits and demerits, and these doubtless will assist teachers in arriving at more definite points of agreement. Doubtless some such precise method of grading as is suggested by Prof. Percy W. Long in his article, "Grades that explain themselves," in the English Journal, volume 3, pages 488–493, October, 1913, must be adopted in order to do justice to the various aspects of each composition. This plan consists essentially in giving one mark for the particular purpose which the composition is to serve and other marks for definite qualities of correctness and effectiveness.

In the field of reading we have as yet only the "Kansas silent reading tests," by F. J. Kelly, which are described in the Journal of Educational Psychology, volume 7, page 63, February, 1916. These are based upon the reading scale for children worked out by Edward L. Thorndike and consist essentially in the pupil's doing what the passage tells him to do, the time element being considered. Such scales, of course, can not be well applied to the reading of literature but rather to other kinds of writing.

II. ECONOMY OF TIME.

The movement for economy of time in education, initiated by President Eliot, of Harvard, and carried forward by President Harper, of the University of Chicago, and President Baker, of the University of Colorado, has as yet borne small fruit in the high school itself. Nevertheless, the interest in the subject has resulted in the discovery that a good deal of the work of the seventh and eighth grades is duplicated unnecessarily in the ninth and tenth, and that in the same way a good deal of the work of the eleventh and twelfth grades is duplicated in the college.[1] The report of the present committee will, it is hoped, assist in avoiding a duplication in the early years of high school. The work should be carried forward so as to cover at least the first two years of the college so that there may be definite progress, with careful articulation, from the seventh grade to the point where the student is ready to specialize.

[1] See Angell, J. R. The Duplication of School Work by the College. School Review, 21: 110, January, 1913.

Within the high school itself great economy in the English work is possible through better defining of the aims, closer cooperation of departments, the application of methods adapted to the different kinds of work, the use of definite objective standards and measurements, and the omission of much useless formal material of instruction. There is no doubt that the influence of the college requirements, while it has stimulated the high schools to more strenuous efforts, has, at the same time, led them in some respects to become overambitious. The youth in the high school can assimilate only what his experience will permit, and hence it is worse than useless to impose upon him the results of mature analysis and formulation. He must analyze and formulate for himself.

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